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SUPERVISION OF COUNSELING: SELECTED PAPERS

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Supervision of Counseling: an overview

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All of the practicing professions—teaching, social work, law, ministry, medicine, clinical and counseling psychology—require that a novice be trained in the skills of his discipline in addition to the acqustion of formal knowledge of theory and precept. Given this tradition it is all the more remarkable that so few of the professions give specific attention to the training of supervisors. As professional educators we must necessarily assume that formal preparation in supervision ultimately enhances the final quality and preparation of those who will in turn be responsible for the development of new generations of practitioners.

On a pragmatic level, most doctoral level personnel in counseling can anticipate spending a good proportion of their professional lives engaged in some kind of supervisory activity. With increasing regularity one observes a trend toward utilization of field personnel for on site supervision in counseling. Delegating such responsibility from the campus to the field emphasizes the importance of insuring that these supervisors will not only be highly competent as counselors themselves but additionally have some prior knowledge and experience in supervisory theory and practice. Supervision involves special skills and understandings; these require explication and use. Again, as professional educators, we must assume from the outset that these skills and understandings are susceptible of systematic presentation and assimilation. Yet, unlike most other areas in the professional training of a person, preparation for supervision tends to be given short shrift in the several professions.

On the theoretical level, much is known about supervision and its component ingredients. More specifically, supervision partakes of important ingredients of teaching, both in theory and technique. The supervision of counseling necessarily partakes as well of important components of counseling theory, technique and practice. Finally, undergirding both these components, are the theoretical contributions deriving from the study of interpersonal process, both on an individual and group level. Thus it can be said that the supervision of counseling

involves marshalling and implementing the skills of both the educator and the psychologist.

As an educator the supervisor brings with him a broader, more specific knowledge of the literature, the theory and fundamental concepts relative to supervisory functioning. This knowledge, supplemented by his own practical experience, provides the supervisor with something to offer the student: that which he himself has acquired and, consequently, that which he himself is in a position to teach. Because of this breadth of background the supervisor sees more facets of the situation and, therefore has a broader perspective on what the student counselor confronts in his learning experiences. Unlike the beginning trainee the supervisor has the advantage of many theories and consequently is less bound to one particular theoretical conception. As research has indicated, he is more likely to integrate theories with his own practical experiences. Additionally, the supervisor as educator accepts his supervisee as an adult and as a motivated person concerned with learning his profession. He understands that cognitive insight—a comprehensive, theoretical background—will not suffice for effectiveness in supervisory or counseling functions; consequently technical competence must be given priority in terms of ultimate desiderata. What the supervisee knows is of little value unless it can find its way into practical implementation. At the same time the supervisor utilizes the insights of the psychological counselor. Like the counselor he is concerned with facilitating growth rather than with commanding or controlling the people he works with. He begins with an attitude of respect for the beginning counselor as a person, sensitive to his feelings and needs. He understands the nature of the threat involved in learning to do counseling and consequently appreciates the role of resistance and defense mechanisms in the learning process of the beginning counselor. He uses his own counseling skills to help facilitate and circumvent these resistances and defense mechanisms in the learning process of the beginning counselor. He uses his own counseling skills to help facilitate and circumvent these resistances and defenses so that the counseling student may more effectively learn and grow. His awareness of the noncognitive aspects of learning and exposure to new experiences helps him to deal with the underlying responses of the beginning counselor as the latter deals with himself, his supervisor, and his clients. Thus, some of the insights and methodology applicable to counseling also finds relevance in the supervisory role.

In addition, as a professional counselor himself, the supervisor is in an excellent position to familiarize the counseling student with a variety of different areas of function relative to professional counseling behavior. Matters of professional comportment, ethical practice, relations with other professions, and similar such specific necessaries are

built into the supervisory contact and make themselves felt in many ways, both consciously and unconsciously.

Finally, the fundamental truth that supervision is an interpersonal process opens the door to a utilization of the profound subtlties of the interpersonal process so that they can be employed in enhancing the growth of the student counselor. The nature of the interpersonal relationship itself is of tremendous significance, for the supervisory experience and for the student counselor. The building of an appropriate climate for learning and for examination of threatening and often confusing kinds of highly personal, emotionally charged experiences is basic to the learning experience in supervision. That is, the way in which supervisor and supervisee relate becomes a critical issue as a determinant of what ultimately will be learned in the situation. Working with client problems often brings the counselor into contact with unresolved problems in his own life. To face these, so that they do not interfere with counseling the client, demands the highest supervisory skills in keeping the relationship free from defensive deterioration. Another central, albeit oftentimes unconscious component of the interpersonal process in supervision has to do with the fact that the supervisor typically stands as a professional model for the neophyte counselor. The sheer exposure to the supervisor and the nature of that interactional relationship over time, events, and experiences becomes a fundamental part of the student's introduction to counseling in much the same way as the child's relationship to its parents sets a pattern for the way in which the child interacts with other figures in the world. In other words the supervisor stands as a central figure in the development of the counseling student's own professional self image. In more dramatic instances this experience may be an important determinant helping the student decide whether to continue into the field or to change his career objectives. Lastly, but of especial significance for the counseling supervisor, he must learn to deal with his role as evaluator. So thoroughly trained is the counselor in working with people nonjudgmentally, in taking them as they are, it is for many beginning supervisors a difficult transposition to find themselves in a role where they must make a professional judgment as to the adequacy, potential, and capacity of those for whom they have supervisory responsibility. The ability to look at another person critically and yet dispassionately is an important counseling skill as well as vital for supervision. Yet it is an area in which many counselors are notorious. In this as in other ways of teaching supervision of counseling becomes a significant mode of learning. For those who undertake to learn about supervision, enhancement of counseling abilities is a not infrequently added benefit.

A thoroughgoing examination of the many facets of supervision in counseling lies beyond the scope of this journal issue. What we hope to

accomplish here is by a selective presentation of representative topics in the field bring to the reader a better understanding of some of the more salient issues in the training for supervision of students in counseling. It is probable that some of these matters will have relevance to principles and policies in the preparation of teachers and school administrators. It is hoped that a better understanding of allied professions may result from this sort of intercommunication.

Supervision: Joint Encounter in Learning

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Supervision: Joint Encounter in Learning

Supervision is constantly being defined in relation to what the teacher has to offer the learner (Williamson, 1963). Some authors have referred to it as being the process of uncovering student strengths (Otto and Griffiths, 1963). This view presupposes that the "learner" possesses innate potentialities of which he is not aware. Further, it could be hypothesized that these attributes can be brought into recognition through appropriate supervisory guidance. The end product of this learning becomes the highly effective and professional counselor.

Similarly, one could place the emphasis on the standard-setting role of the supervisor (Robinson, 1949; Simon, 1966; Towle, 1962). Here expectations are generated by the supervisor for the trainee. Simon (1966), in investigating the learning process due to field instruction, noted the presence of several outcomes. First, the supervisor aids the student in his intellectual development. Second, there is the learner's recognition of the pragmatic application of counseling techniques. Third, self-development of the trainee is fostered through an explication of professional limitations by the supervisor. Fourth, a sensitivity to human interactions is generated in the supervisory setting. Following from these points comes the development of a professional identity. Finally, the supervisor teaches the trainee to pursue "new" learning at all times.

So far the supervisory process has been defined in terms of what one "highly learned person" has to offer another "less learned person." What if we were to picture the learning process in a give-and-take paradigm? Would not the supervisor then become, like his trainee, both "learner" and "teacher?" Hester (1956) posited just such a question in her view that one should "try-out" their thinking via the supervisory interaction. It would seem that the time has come to abandon the image of the supervisor as being all knowledgeable in favor of a more humanistic and realistic model. (Everyone who performs the daily chores of being a supervisor should realize that they have a need

to learn more about people and counseling if they are to be effective teachers.)

Learning—Anxiety—Growth

Supervision appears to be a tripartite learning situation. The client enters into a relationship with the counselor (supervisee) for a variety of reasons, but almost always to deal with some form of discomfort. The counselor's position relative to the client demands that he impart "something" to alleviate the problem. In many ways he may be just as uncomfortable as the client. The third party is the supervisor. He is charged with the responsibility of aiding the supervisee to work meaningfully with the client. To accomplish this end, the supervisor must teach the counselor techniques of counseling; he must try to make the trainee aware of himself; he must impart information as to expected professional behavior; and he should be aware of the developments taking place in the client-counselor relationship. In discussing supervisory learning the supervisor-supervisee relationship is to be the focus of investigation.

The literature abounds with a variety of tenets as to what can characterize the supervisory learning process (Anderson and Brown, 1955; Demos, 1965; Patterson, 1964). These listings tend to incorporate the elements of: capacity, motivation, distractability, participation, task orientation, emotional disparagement, and the preparation for failure. Such characteristics seem more applicable to a therapeutic rather than supervisory setting. Wolberg (1967) has aligned supervisory learning with this vain of thinking. He feels that participation in the learning experience facilitates the total supervision process. Such an individual involvement is seen as illustrating a commitment to learn. If there are repeated efforts to execute the healthy responses then these expenditures act as reinforcements. Wolberg states that learning is heightened when the person derives some form of self-satisfaction of important needs. He defines the latter to be the gaining of rewards and an avoidance of punishment. In summing up, Wolberg points out that rational understanding is the *sine qua non* of any learning process.

It would seem the assumption that supervision resembles psychotherapy has been made in a generalized way. Yet, there is no concluding support for viewing supervision as a therapeutic device. However, it may be justified to consider it as a situation which makes use of the methodology found in a therapy session. Wolberg has not delineated what effect learner motivation may have on the final outcome. The simplistic view that participation equals commitment to learn should be further examined. Several authors have described the supervisee as being responsible for his own learning (Ekstein and Wallerstein, 1958;

Robinson, 1936; Williamson, 1963). Implied here is the tacit assumption that the learner is the one who controls what takes place.

Austin (1956) has pursued an in-depth delineation of supervisory learning principles. She feels that learning patterns in supervision adhere to the same principles germane to other forms of behavior. In essence, the individual can only be understood in relation to his background, experience, personality gestalt, and motivation to act. It is assumed that learning occurs as the result of a direct experience of the teacher-student relationship. By implication, one may conclude that learning can only take place when there is a positive supervisory relationship. Austin states that constructive use of the experience is totally dependent on the maturity of the learner. It could be hypothesized that the maturation process has a direct relationship to the learning taking place in supervision. To expect that the learner possesses a high degree of self-awareness prior to entering supervision predisposes to possible failure for the supervisee and erroneous expectations in the supervisor. Considering the nature of learning in counseling Austin pointed out that emotional conflicts, which are anxiety laden, could impede the learner's ability to discriminate and generalize. Supervisors should strive to deal with anxiety as it arises in order to facilitate the learning process. Finally, she concludes that learning is influenced by the physical and socio-cultural conditions predominant in society. In reviewing these points one can see their broad applicability to not only the supervisee but also the supervisor as learner.

How does one put these principles to use? Lucio and McNeil (1962) have suggested the application of learning techniques based on a theory of behavior reinforcement. Two distinct phases are recognizable in their conceptualization. First, stimuli are presented in order to change the milieu and ensure alteration of behavior. Second, these precipitated changes can only take place in the learner as his behavior is predetermined, intended, and explicit. In a different view, Levine (1956) notes the need of "positive readiness" for learning to occur. She indicates that learning is fostered by both favorable conditions and the removal of obstacles. One could expect to experience periods of discomfort, extended plateaus in learning, and regression. Levine states that learning is an emotional and intellectual process where different forms of resistance can be expected. This does seem somewhat akin to what one would expect to take place in therapy although Levine does not state this to be her model.

Robinson (1936) asserts that anxiety is present in all supervisory learning experiences. This stems from the fact that one is dealing with "unknowns" and thus providing a direct threat to previously learned patterns. Anxiety is seen as a derivative of the individual's fear of

change. This fear may stem from an awareness that if one is to learn counseling he must be willing to "risk" himself (see also Arbuckle, 1965). Failure to risk would, in effect, constitute a resistance to learning. On a similar vein, Towle (1954) found learning in supervision to resemble a basic survival struggle. She saw the learner as seeking a direction towards gratification of his needs with the least expenditure of energy. Anxiety was found to be a motivating factor in this search for gratification.

The inherent discomfort of the learner can be constructively used in supervision through confrontation and suggestions for resolution. Towle (1954) has pointed out that periods of pain reinforce learning by requiring the supervisee to seek out a more comfortable state. We have postulated that learning can—and usually does when seen as a threat to the organismic state of the individual—create anxiety. However, the presence of anxiety does not necessarily indicate that learning is occurring. Resistance on the learner's part may cause separation from the situation and possibly regression to past forms of behavior. In developing self-awareness the learner becomes more confident in his ability to deal with anxiety. This then can result in increased learning.

Altucher (1967) emphasizes the growth process in the supervisory relationship. The supervisee's willingness to withstand the discomfort involved will affect his ability to find comfortable solutions. It is this search for the means of doing and the knowledge of self that imbues the learner with the stimulation to learn. Towle (1963) describes the mechanism of growth as a process of continual adaptation of the self and the environment in the striving for the mastery of both. Implicit in this sequence would seem to be an alteration in the ways one thinks and acts as new learning presents opposition to old patterns of behavior. In discussing supervisee growth one could make the inference that the learning process involves not only change but also adjustment and reorganization. Second, it would seem logical to make the assumption that if the learner is to make constructive use of learned tasks he must strive to achieve a high degree of self-awareness.

Robinson (1936) was among the first to recognize that the learning process in supervision involves an inclusive growth orientation. She suggested that there are three problems to be considered in planning for this growth. First, the "part-whole" problem relates to the individual's reaction to the total learning situation in any cross section of time. How does the supervisee enter into supervision? How does he view the supervisor? What is his motivation to learn? These are some of the vital questions that should be explored. Second, a "growth and creativity" problem is a possible block to growth. Here, the supervisee internalizes the learning process and surrenders direction over the part-

whole movement to his self organized will. It seems that Robinson is stating that the supervisee surrenders overt controls to prior learned covert mechanisms of adaptation. Finally, the "establishment and limits" problems where the learning process can eventuate into a form and organization that operates as firmly as established and limited structures or be projected into attitudes and behavior as tools of the self. Robinson would seem to be describing a need for the individual to utilize coping behavior when confronted with the tripartite learning model of supervision.

It is readily accepted that learning in supervision must focus on the development of the supervisee. However, this classical stance neglects the fact that a joint learning interaction is taking place in supervision. What does the supervisor bring to the supervisee? Is it possible that the supervisor learns from the supervisee? Unless we can adequately account for these variables it would seem erroneous to assume that the topic of learning in supervision has been fully covered.

Supervisor as Teacher

The supervisor's major roll is that of teacher. In assuming this position it is expected that the supervisor does, in fact, have some practical and theoretical knowledge to impart to the supervisee. Holcomb (1956) has described the teaching role in terms of the tasks the supervisor has to perform. First, the supervisor should instruct his trainee in the scientific practices of formulating precise hypotheses. The second task is to teach the supervisee the appropriate methodology for testing out these hypotheses. Then the supervisor must show the supervisee how to make use of historical perspectives in defining the meaning of the results of experimentation. Finally, the supervisor has the task of developing a sense of professional security in his trainee.

Berl (1963) looks upon supervisory teaching from a theoretical and psychodynamic viewpoint. Initially the supervisor must teach the trainee about the agency. In this manner one is clarifying and delimiting the responsibilities assigned to the supervisee. To do this, Berl feels the supervisor should identify problem areas, focus in on them, and present various solutions. This tack is a means of illustrating how clients react to the agency and it's policies. The supervisee should also be instructed relative to the environmental stresses which impinge on the clients' psychological growth. Imparting information on personality dynamics aids the supervisee in gaining this understanding. Secondarily, it will advise the trainee in how to form meaningful relationships where the client will feel free to discuss problems. A question which seems pertinent at this point would be to ask what has taken place in the counselor's academic training. Berl may be neglecting the role that formal training should play prior to, or concurrent with, the

supervision period. It seems that such "educational" pursuits would seriously detract from the supervisory process rather than broadening it. In concluding, Berl suggests that the supervisor should teach the trainee the basics of the helping process. In effect the supervisee should become aware that he is responsible for knowing where he is, where he is going, and what is going on with each client.

An evaluation which reflects only the supervisee's ability to counsel tends to negate the importance of also knowing his ability to perform a gamut of necessary non-counseling functions. Stated juxtaposed, administrative know-how does not indicate counseling prowess but it does reflect individual capacities within an agency structure. It would be hoped that the majority of supervisors favor an approach where theory and practice receive equal assessment.

Supervisee as Learner

The student in supervision should be learning to acquire an awareness of his behavior, attitudes, feelings and competency in relation to a work-oriented professional role. The supervisee, as described by Robinson (1936), presents a series of distinct "learning needs" associated with the search for an identity. Initially, the supervisee must establish the limits of factual knowledge in his possession. His next task is to delineate a consistant philosophy about human interaction. The final need revolves around the utilization of himself in a responsible fashion.

Berengarten (1957) has formulated three patterns of supervisee learners. First, the "intellectual-emphatic pattern" is where the learner assumes a great deal of initiative. Second, the "doer pattern" has the learner relating positively to, and identifying with, the supervisor. Last, the "experiential-emphatic pattern" has the learner withdrawing because of the fear of the supervisory aggression.

It is assumed that the supervisee is desirous of learning something of which he has little knowledge—the art of Counseling. He enters supervision with the expectation that the supervisor is prepared to teach him about the process and to aid him in his securing a workable technique. However, the supervisor may be lacking something to teach. This may be due to the supervisor's own inept functioning or his inability to transmit knowledge in an effective manner. Additionally, the supervisee may be resistive to new learning. Ekstein and Wallerstein (1958) suggest that resistances can best be resolved within the context of an accepting and positive supervisory relationship.

Supervisor as Learner

The supervisor, no matter what his stage of development may be or the amount of experience he may have had, learns from his supervisees. The student, being fairly new to the profession, brings with him a

freshness and a new way of looking at those situations commonplace to the supervisor. Recent contact with the academic environment instills in the trainee an enthusiasm for new ideas, new concepts, new theories, and a different outlook. The supervisor would seem obliged to maintain an awareness of what the student presents and how it may apply to the reality with which he deals daily. He can use the situation to reassess his programs, his staff, his agency and himself on a continuous basis. Slockbower (1959) found in examining supervisory communications that the supervisee often places the supervisor in a position of having to learn to objectively deal with problem areas.

The supervisor can use learning process to gain greater awareness of the techniques essential to good teaching. By having to assess student needs, in order to develop a meaningful supervisory format, the supervisor may acquire data relative to the learner's characteristics and the learning process. Learning of his own fallibilities, the supervisor becomes aware of the need for revision and change. Pursuing such activity makes the total process more meaningful for not only the student but also the supervisor.

Daily and Hogan (1958) have shown that learning to listen is essential to the development of constructive supervisory process and growth. Listening is the methodology used to assess the students present level of educational and personal functioning. From this the supervisor can determine what steps may be implemented to foster self-awareness and the transition to a professional identity. As experienced by supervisors, learning to listen in supervisory practice is, initially, as difficult as it is in counseling.

The supervisor must learn the skills, beyond teaching, necessary to conduct supervision. While part may be accomplished by reviewing the theoretical literature, the primary vehicle is a matter of trial-and-error experience. Each generation presents the supervisor with new biases and perspectives which may drastically affect his ability to act as a teacher unless he is flexible in his approach. Although the "learned elements" of supervision tend to remain fairly consistent, they will fall short unless the supervisor learns to periodically reassess his skills.

Probably the most common thing learned by all supervisors is the need to recognize differences among trainees. This is important in the tailoring of the learning process to the individual student. Confronted with a variety of emotional, social and cultural problems among supervisees, the supervisor learns more about his own biases and prejudices. To sustain effectiveness, he should learn that an awareness of his reactions to the student as an individual will determine the outcome of supervision.

Achievement of self-awareness in the supervisor has often been associated with "risking oneself" (Arbuckle, 1965). Sometimes super-

visors place themselves in an omnipotent role where they assume total knowledge of counseling. Instead, such a deduction fails to recognize that the supervisor must strive towards total self-development. Learning theory has shown that people are always in the process of becoming more knowledgeable. To feel that academic degrees and training eradicates the need for experience and learning over time denies the human limitations of the supervisor. The supervisor should be willing to acknowledge his own areas of ignorance. For both learners the supervisory process will then take on new meaning with greater depth and mutual respect.

The Supervisor-Supervisee Relationship

The supervisory relationship is the vehicle through which learning transpires. My intent is to briefly explore the learning structure of this one-to-one relationship and not it's interactional qualities. Berl (1960) has conceived of supervision as being a crossing of experience and learning. He stated that in order to do there must be learning and in order to learn one must perform.

In the literature there is a contention that the supervisory relationship should be non-judgmental and accepting if learning is to take place (Arbuckle, 1965b; Robinson, 1949; Walsh, 1960; Reynolds, 1942; Smalley, 1967). The relationship is pictured as a "security-giving-mechanism" or "insight device" which frees the student from his fear of new learning. This relationship should have two qualities. First, it should be permissive and allow for the reduction of resistance to learning. Second, it should be open to the development of self-actualizing tendencies on the learners part. The supervisory contract appears to be based on an unstated commitment to learning—not therapy or the exertion of controls. There should be an honest and sincere concern for the subject matter with the goal of maximizing one's functional status in order to help others. This can be viewed as being equally true for the supervisor as well as the supervisee.

The supervisory relationship is quite different than that of the classical teacher-student interaction. It requires that all participants operate in a give-and-take fashion versus the teacher as giver and the student as taker. Pursuit of learning depends on the rapport achieved in this relationship. The motivation to learn has been found to relate directly to the trust one party has for the other. This relationship will effect the individual's desire to abdicate resistances to new learning.

Learning Problems In Supervision

Determination of supervisory learning problems now may appear fallacious. Prior sections have pointed out numerous problem areas such as anxiety, motivation, resistance, identity, learner versus teacher

roles, omnipotence, and the relationship. However, the literature delineates several additional problems of learning. Further, it would seem essential to supervision to locate the sources of these difficulties and the means of resolution.

Wolberg (1967) has listed learning problems which relate to supervision. The majority of these have been previously covered. However, he did point out that the problem of past learning is a core issue. Adherence to old learned patterns of behavior must be first dealt with if new learning is to occur. Resolution is suggested by concentrating on the learner's work performance rather than the problem itself. By actively involving the learnee in ongoing process there tends to be an eradication of preoccupation with the way things used to be done. The other problem presented by Wolberg was centered on the facilitation of learning. Unless the techniques used satisfy the individual's needs there will be increased resistances to learning. Wolberg feels that learning can be expedited by success and impaired by failure. The implication here would seem to be that the supervisor should seek areas where the supervisee can and does succeed.

Altucher (1967) has traced the sources of learning difficulties to three primary deficiencies. The first is a lack of experience and knowledge. The emphasis must be placed on the supervisee's feelings rather than his intellect. The process starts from a point of ambiguity, proceeds to total involvement of the learner in his tasks, and culminates with an awareness of what is occurring. The second deficiency is related to the counselor's characteristic patterns of behavior. Altucher feels that what the learner brings to supervision in terms of old learning may be inappropriate and block the development of understanding of people and the ability to communicate. Finally, the core difficulties often associated with the response to the supervisor represent another deficiency. This can frequently interfere with the supervisee's ability to constructively use learning with supervision. Inversely, the manner in which the supervisor relates to the supervisee has equal importance.

The resolution of learning problems would seem to basically rest on an attitudinal bias. Towle (1963) has described an approach which is supervisor centered. Since learning theory has a general applicability, her conclusions may apply to all situations. First the problem must be identified and confronted. This is not a simple "ah-ha" matter. It necessitates the delegation of ample time to explore and delineate the issue. Second, to resolve the problem, emphasis is placed on a task approach where useful behavior and problem behavior share equal billing. One should be aware of the emotional state and realize that many alternatives are available to replace the problem behavior. Third, the learner's development should be measured according to the acceptable norms for professional growth and not individualized perceptions.

Towle concludes by stating that anxiety may be present at any point during resolution and should by recognized as a symptom of growth. As one gains an awareness of the learning problem it is possible to pursue learning through supervision in a more meaningful way.

Conclusion

The unique quality found in the application of learning theory to supervision is it's opposition to the classical model of education. It should be less threatening and more accepting of the student "as he is." The supervisee is allowed to create within his own limitations and therefore can achieve a good deal of success. The resistances to learning are resolvable through a close and constructive supervisory relationship. Then too, there is not the gradation and need for conformity often associated with classroom learning. Under appropriate supervisory guidance there need not be a fear of non-achievement or the need to compete.

Probably of equal significance is the deduction that the supervisor, as well as the supervisee, has the role of "learner" to conform with. We have often failed to recognize that a teacher should be continually updating and improving his skills if he is to be effective. The supervisor has even greater responsibility in that counseling is a dynamic interactional task which needs prolonged investigation before one can approach mastery of it. Therefore, the learning process in supervision is total in nature and involves a commitment on the part of each participant. The existing literature on supervision as a learning process has failed to consider this aspect to any significant degree.

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Promoting Experiential-Feeling Qualities in Counselor Education and Supervision: Some Schemes

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There has always been, and it seems as if there always will be endless discussion and debate about the matter and form that should comprise the ideal or optimal education program for counselors and psycho-therapists. It is taken for granted that strong emphasis will be placed on the cognitive realm of preparation. The student counselor is expected to be developing therapeutic skills and techniques, and to be formulating and testing a theoretical framework for understanding human behavior. It is also an accepted fact that the student counselor must at least consider the question of his personal and emotional functioning and growth in addition to his quest for professional fulfillment. Since it seems that the vast majority of counselor educators and counselors would agree that the intellectual and affective domains of counselor development are integral parts of a comprehensive whole; then, perhaps, the argument centers more specifically on how these two aspects of counselor preparation can be effectively promoted.

The purpose of this paper is to consider the importance of developing the humanistic and emotional qualities of the counselor as a person, and to examine some possible ways to promote the counselor's affective development in the counseling practicum.

History and Importance

Gradually recognition is being given to the saliency of the counselor as a person, as an interpersonal relator, and to the importance of his affective effectiveness. Kell and Meuller (1966) and also Foreman (1967), who cites support from the works of Gysleers (1964), Hansen and Barker (1964), Lester (1966), Orton (1965), Peters and Hansen (1963) and Truax, Carkhuff, and Douds (1964), stress the importance of the counselor's experiential-feeling qualities in facilitating client growth.

About twenty years ago Fiedler (1950) was able to show that coun-

selors of widely disparate theoretical persuasions were able to achieve much the same results with their clients. This finding led to speculation that there may be certain qualities that effective counselors have in common. Several years later Whitehorn and Betz (1954) conducted research which suggested that successful and unsuccessful counselors differed in their attitudinal approach to psychotherapy. The helpful counselors were warm and attempted to understand the patient in a personal, immediate, and idiosyncratic way, whereas the less helpful counselors tended to relate in a more impersonal manner focusing upon psychopathology and remaining somewhat cool and distant.

Continued research in this area, especially during the past five or six years, has resulted in a real breakthrough in understanding counselor inner space. Applied behavioral scientists Barrett-Lennard (1962), Bergin and Solomon (1963), Cartwright and Lerner (1963), Dickenson and Truax (1966), Halkides (1958), Lesser (1961), Rogers (1962), Rogers, Kiesler, Gendlin and Truax (1967), Strupp (1960), Truax (1961a) (1961b) (1963) (1966b), Truax and Carkhuff (1963), Truax, Carkhuff, and Kodman (1965), and Truax, Wargo, Silber (1966), have conducted studies which suggest strongly that counselor levels of accurate empathy, non-possessive warmth, and genuineness are significant antecedents to therapeutic change. Research in counselor training conducted by Truax (1966a) (1966c), suggests that when counselors utilize these more humanistic dimensions as reinforcement for the client as he anxiously submerges to disclose previously denied aspects of himself, that such reinforcement will lead to greater client self-exploration and thus enhance more positive therapeutic outcome. Therefore the kind of person the counselor is and the way in which he is perceived by the client in their interpersonal encounter are extremely critical factors influencing client growth and progress. The three ingredients in effective counseling named above are human, personal qualities. They can be common to counselors no matter what theory they espouse. Truax and Wargo (1966) have demonstrated that these humanistic dimensions of effective counselors cut across the private boundaries of various theories of psychotherapy and appear to be common to a wide variety of therapeutic approaches. It seems scientifically apparent that these personal conditions are universals in effective counseling that must be operative if the client is to be helped.

Truax and Wargo (1966) list these personal, universal, humanistic qualities in order of importance as the communication of the therapist's genuineness or authenticity, second, his non-possessive warmth, and third, his accurate empathetic understanding. Genuineness is presented as a necessary condition for the effective operation of the other two. The therapist who is authentic is open to his own internal experience. This means that "the therapist is not denying feelings or experiences;

that he does not hold himself aloof from a personal encounter." The lowest level of genuineness as measured by a descriptive scale is indicated by an obvious discrepancy between the content of the therapist's statements and the tone of his voice. At the intermediate level his communications sound more "professional" and "rehearsed" rather than "personal." The therapist functioning at the highest level is portrayed as being open to the complete range of the client's feelings "without traces of defensiveness or retreat into professionalism. . .".

Non-possessive warmth is a "willingness to share" the client's positive and negative experiences and feelings without being judgmental or distortive. "It means a warm acceptance of the other person, and his feelings and experiences without placing any conditions upon his warmth." Non-possessive warmth at the lowest recorded level is characterized by therapist responses which are highly judgmental and advisory, and lacking in spontaneous, personal concern. The therapist's needs to be liked and valued are diminishing at the highest level while "the patient is free to be himself even if this means that he is regressing, being defensive, or even disliking or rejecting the therapist himself."

Accurate empathetic understanding is portrayed as a "sensitivity" to the client's world of feelings and experiences and "the verbal facility to communicate this understanding in a language attuned to the patient's current feelings. At the lowest recorded levels the therapist lacks empathy and is completely unaware of the most obvious feelings whereas at the intermediate level his responses are empathetic but tinged with some degree of inaccuracy in understanding the client's more hidden feelings. At the highest measurable levels the therapist is described as being able to accurately respond to the client's protected feelings and experiences with a sensitivity that encourages the client to express them rather than deny them.

These descriptions of the three experiential-feeling qualities were presented in some detail because they are some of the most complete operational definitions developed of the conditions which are vital to movement, change, and growth in therapy. They appear to be the marks of the effective counselor. If the implications of these statements can be accepted, then the question is, "Can these human dimensions be taught, learned, and experienced?" The answer seems to be affirmative; however, counselor educators Krumboltz (1967), Matarazzo, et al (1966) and Wrenn (1962) note that it is a challenging and complex issue, especially with beginning counselors.

Learning Humanistic Values
The evidence is mounting that these three essential conditions of a successful therapeutic relationship—genuineness, nonpossessive warmth and accurate empathy—can be taught and learned, and experienced.

In fact they seem to comprise a part of the very essence of man's human nature which strains for release through actualizing experiences. Poser (1966) was able to demonstrate that lay personnel with no therapeutic training were able to be therapeutically effective because they embodied these personal dimensions. Carkhuff and Truax (1965b) (1967) report that lay personnel can learn to function at levels of effective therapy commensurate with experienced therapists in less than 100 hours of training. Through a two year training program Rioch et al (1963) were able to teach middle aged, female college graduates how to counsel effectively. It seems to follow that if these three conditions can be learned and experienced by lay personnel, then surely, they can be learned by sophisticated, motivated graduate students in counseling psychology. Indeed, Carkhuff and Truax (1965b) (1967) and others have demonstrated that it can be done!

Promotion Through Three Operational Schemes

Within each of three operational schemes for educating counseling psychologists a number of special methods for promoting the learning of these three humanistic qualities will be proposed and described. Providing ways and opportunities to learn and develop these qualities seems imperative. Carkhuff and Truax (1965a) assert that counselor supervisors should provide avenues for learning and integrating these three personal dimensions necessary for effective counseling during the course of the counselor education program. These three schemes, all built upon the "traditional" model of counselor training—the supervised small group practicum—are described as follows: The first scheme is the *integrative* scheme in which the methods are interwoven through the small group practicum under the leadership of the supervisor. The objective is to draw out the group potential for interpersonal encounter. The second scheme is the *concurrent* scheme. The methods would be presented as part of the counseling practicum but recognized as distinct learning experiences. They would involve special equipment and facilities to record on-the-spot counseling sessions and to provide immediate feedback. Reactions to these experiences would be discussed in the practicum seminar setting. The supervisor would be responsible for the administration of these methods. The third scheme is the adjunctive scheme. In this scheme the procedures are utilized separately from the practicum experience but they do not require the presence or active direction of the supervisor.

It is entirely conceivable that one, or a combination of these schemes could be used to replace some of the conventional models being used in counselor education today.

Integrative Scheme

In the traditional practicum group the supervisor or counselor educator is constantly confronted with numerous opportunities to help the members of his group to become involved in the process of fulfilling their personal and professional potential. In an atmosphere where, traditionally, there can be a great deal of anxiety surrounding the exposure of the counseling self via audio tape there is an urgent need to work towards developing a level of involvement in which the student counselor as a group member can feel free to share himself, to confront his fellow counselors about their counseling behavior and at the same time accept confrontation and respond to it, and to give and receive support and encouragement without embarrassment. Essentially what is proposed is a T-group type of experience for the student counselor. It is in this kind of setting that the budding counselor may start to draw himself out, to unravel his human potential and thus begin to embody these experiential-feeling qualities. This T-group or encounter group approach in counselor education is not so new. The proposal to incorporate these human potential models in the counseling practicum is based on the encouraging report by Foreman (1967) in which he advocates that T-grouping should be made a part of the counselor's educational program.

The three procedures presented below have been drawn from the writings of several experts in small group activity. The counseling supervisor, through initiation and facilitation, may intersperse these procedures appropriately during the course of the small group practicum sessions.

Before proceeding to incorporate any of these T-group paradigms, serious consideration should be given to the recent recommendations of a well-known expert in the field of human relations training. Profesor Max Birnbaum (1969), director of Boston University's Human Relations Laboratory, advises that there should be a conscious group consensus about the nature, objectives and anticipated effects of the sensitivity training experience before it is applied. When the aim of the training program is personal growth, he advocates critical reflection concerning the possible consequences of conducting it in an environment where the participants are co-workers.

Otto's Depth Unfoldment Experience—This first design or method, Herb Otto's (1967) "Depth Unfoldment Experience," is especially appropriate for the initial practicum meeting. It's primary purpose is to breakdown "interpersonal estrangement" early in the group sessions and to facilitate interpersonal encounter on an emotional level.

Once the group has assembled, each member, beginning with the leader, takes five minutes to relate the three most meaningful experiences in his life. Members must choose one experience each from childhood,

adolescence, and adulthood. At the end of five minutes each member is then given one minute to discuss the happiest moment in his life.

This method tends to develop "interpersonal closeness," spontaneity of communication, self understanding and self awareness, and empathy and sensitivity to feelings.

Through actual participation in and observation of group sessions Otto reports that generally his DUE method promotes deeper levels of group involvement over a shorter period of time when compared with groups where it is not used.

Rothaus—Group Participation Training—This integrative formula, which is based on the idea of using role reversal techniques to train people for participation in group therapy, was developed by Rothaus, Johnson, and Lyle (1964). Although their idea evolved from attempts to help passive psychiatric patients become more activity involved in group therapy sessions, it certainly seems adaptable to most forms of group activity.

About ten minutes prior to each group session passive members were given instructions in active leadership behavior. This was followed by role playing exercises which included a critique and discussion period. During the same time the active members of the group were told to reverse their roles. In the supervisory sessions of the counseling practicum this approach might possibly be more effective if it is incorporated within the group session itself.

The findings of their research indicate that the role reversal technique followed by feedback and discussion helps passive members attempt to participate and to take a non-threatening look at their behavior. Clinically it seems to be a promising method for promoting behavior change in group therapy and in small group sessions. Miles (1960) reporting on research in human relations with a non-clinical population stresses that results indicate that group involvement or participation is significantly correlated with constructive personality change.

Schutz—Encounter Group Techniques—This final paradigm contains a number of revolutionary new group techniques and exercises which are geared towards helping a person fulfill his human potential and become better integrated. These techniques are explained by William C. Schutz in his book *Joy, Expanding Human Awareness.*

In order to understand the place of these techniques in the group setting it is important to consider, briefly Schutz's theory of group life. Drawing from the literature of psychodynamic personality theory, he postulated that three interpersonal need areas which seemed to account for most interpersonal behavior; (a) "Inclusion," the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people in respect to interaction and association; (b) "Control," the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to con-

trol and power; and (c) "Affection," the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with others in respect to love and affection. Each of these needs included two aspects, the "Expressed" aspect of the need (expressed toward others) and the "Wanted" aspect (wanted from others). Interpersonal behavior was dealt with in terms of each of these three need variables as being "Ideal," "deficient," "Excessive," or "Pathological." Ideal behavior emerges from a successful working through of related early experiences, while Deficient, Excessive, and Pathological behavior are a result of the anxiety engendered by early unresolved interpersonal experiences. The behavior of any given individual can be described as some combination which incorporates elements of all three types.

These interpersonal need areas apply to the groups process of evolvement in the sense that each group works through, in some sort of sequence, the needs of inclusion, control and affection. For the most part the needs are never completely satisfied, there is usually a vaccilation among the three need areas throughout the life of the group.

Schutz has developed various non-verbal techniques to help group members become involved in dealing with personal issues around these three needs. There is a strong emphasis on expression through movement and action.

Some examples of the techniques which might be applied in the three areas of interpersonal need as they evolve in the group are as follows: In the area of Inclusion where "encounter" is emphasized the techniques of giving first impressions and communicating non-verbally in a dyad are employed. In the first exercise each group member stands before the group while the members give their first impressions of him. After each member has had his turn, they may return to this approach from time to time during the first few sessions. The second technique is applied when two members have a difficult time understanding each other. They are seated facing each other and asked to state each other's position and then asked to communicate to each other without using words. One technique designed for the Control area where "confrontation" is foremost in Danish thumb-wrestling. Two members grasp each other's hand by coupling their four fingers together. They bump their thumbs together three times and on the third touch they begin to wrestle with their thumbs until one member can hold the other member's thumb down for the count of three. The Affection area with its stress on "embrace" utilizes the techniques of "strength bombardment," and "rock and roll." The first exercise involves all the group members communicating their positive feelings to one member of the group either verbally or non-verbally. The other technique involves forming a circle around one of the members, who is

asked to close his eyes and relax, and then he is passed around from one member to another.

The suggestion here is that the members of the counseling practicum and the supervisor discuss the theory and decide what interpersonal need has arisen and what techniques might be most appropriate in the practicum setting for meeting it.

Schutz (1966) in a report on some research involving his theory and techniques states:

> An overwhelming majority of respondents reported a substantial increase in their intellectual understanding and enhancement of their personal relations in terms of lessened tension, more honesty, assertiveness, confidence, self-acceptance, and flexibility. (pp. 285-286).

His follow-up research indicated that a large majority of the participants reported that changes "persisted or grew." Feedback also showed that the group members experienced no psychological harm; in fact, they were "overwhelmingly positive in their evaluation of the experience."

This integrative scheme included only a few samples of the growing number of formulas which can be applied to help to make the counseling practicum an environment conducive to the conception and development of the three experiential-feeling qualities. As the group jells interpersonally various designs may be integrated in the group process at crucial times to promote the learning and experiencing of these essential humanistic conditions. For example, a particular sequence of application might include the incorporation of Otto's *DUE* method in the initial practicum sessions to be followed by the utilization of the structures of Rothaus et al and Schutz when and where they seemed appropriate and meaningful.

The major implication for the counselor educator, if this scheme is to be tried and rested, is that he must become—if he is not already—well versed both theoretically and practically in the fundamentals of human relations groups and the processes of encounter and facilitation. Implication by association makes emphatic the need to be knowledgeable in the areas of group dynamics and process, small group theory, and normal psychosocial behavior.

Concurrent Scheme

The two methods included in the concurrent scheme, which are administered by the counseling supervisor, can be thought of as partially separate segments of the traditional counseling practicum. Although both the audiotaping and videotaping procedures will be ongoing and

paralleling the practicum, the videotaping methods are usually applied in a separate laboratory setting. However this does not have to always be the case. Videotaping can be an integral part of the small group practicum because of the development of modern, portable equipment. Thus the practicum group is the focal point for reactions, criticisms, and debates about the audio and video taped counseling experiences with the probability of the tape recorder being more a part of the practicum group than the camera.

Carkhuff and Truax—An Integrated Didactic and Experiential Approach—This first concurrent method was devised by Carkhuff and Truax (1965b) to teach counselors the three therapeutic conditions of accurate, empathy, non-possessive warmth, and genuineness. The major components of their framework, which emphasizes counselor growth and development, are in integration of the didactic and the experiential approach involving the use of training tapes and specially designed scales for measuring the presence of these three conditions. This cognitive-conative process usually follows this sequence: Interning counseling psychologists are didactically taught the three therapeutic conditions; they listen to tape recorded counseling sessions of these three conditions being communicated at various facilitative levels; they are taught to discriminate among the various levels of these conditions; they practice in responding with these conditions by listening to tapes of client statements and then formulating responses in terms of the feeling and content; they practice embodying these conditions in their response by role playing; and finally, they participate in live counseling sessions which are taped and rated. Feedback is given immediately and concretely to the student counselor regarding his progress in integrating and communicating these three conditions.

Carkhuff and Truax have effectively educated lay personnel and graduate students in counseling psychology by utilizing a sixteen week, one hundred hour time block in which students met once a week for one two-hour group session plus two required hours of additional tape listening on their own.

The findings of their research indicate that graduate students and lay personnel can learn to function at the same effective levels of therapy as experienced, successful therapists. They learned to embody and communicate these three experiential-feeling qualities.

Ivey—Micro-counseling Using Video Tape—This particular format for educating counseling psychologists was designed by Allen Ivey (1968). The three major counseling techniques which the author teaches are "attending behavior" which includes eye contact, posture with bodily movements and gestures, and the counselor's ability to respond to the client's last communication without introducing new material; "accurate reflection of feeling" which is the communication

of empathetic understanding; and, the "summarization of feelings" which is feeding back an accurate, empathetic response.

Ivey's model, which requires a continuous two hour time span and video tape equipment, is constructed as follows: the student counselor has an initial five minute session with the client which is videotaped; he reads a manual describing the specific technique he wants to learn and then he participates in a discussion about it with the supervisor; he views videotaped films of the technique as it is used by counselors with varying degrees of effectiveness and he discusses this with his supervisor; he views the videotape of his initial session and critiques it in the light of what he has learned above; he participates in a three minute role play session with an experienced counselor acting as the client which is videotaped and then critiqued by the student and the supervisor; he meets the original client for the second five minute counseling session which is also videotaped; he meets with the supervisor to view the film and critique his use of the technique; he has the final five minute counseling session with the original client which is videotaped also; and finally, he critiques this taped segment with the supervisor.

The results of the author's research with beginning counselors indicates that the employment of this method significantly improves their use of these techniques in counseling.

The adaptation of these two designs to the counseling practicum sessions seems to evolve according to a natural pattern. Generally, beginning counselors would seem to be less threatened by moving from audiotaping to videotaping because they at least expect to be involved with the former and are probably familiar with it. Thus listening by itself can be the preparation for listening and looking together.

Also it is possible to conceive of not only utilizing these methods concurrently with the counseling practicum group but also of imposing them on the traditional practicum format without diluting its function and impact. Modern audio and video tape equipment is light and mobile and so is easily transported to and operated in almost any practicum setting having proper electrical outlets. Furthermore innovation is strongly suggested, for the close similarity between Ivey's skills of "accurate reflection of feeling" and "summarization of feelings" and Carkhuff and Truax's condition of accurate empathy invites experimentation in transposing and integrating the various procedures of their training paradigms.

For the counselor educator or supervisor the prime implication is that he at least have some familiarity not only with the intriguing methods being developed but also with the basic mechanics and techniques of video taping. This is an exciting dimension of educating counselors which demands attention and careful application.

Adjunctive Scheme

Recall that the adjunctive scheme programs require no immediate supervision by the counselor educator because they are designed to be self-administering. The suggested strategy is that these selections be used at a time separate from the practicum setting. They would probably be more digestible and effective if they were employed outside the college or university's departmental environment.

Berlin and Wycoff—The General Relationship Improvement Program (GRIP)—Advertising copy from the Human Development Institute, Inc. describes the dyadic program as "a programmed course in human relations designed to be taken by two people together." The official name of the program is *General Relationship Improvement Program*. In a paper presented at a symposium of the American Psychological Association Convention in 1963, its inventors, Drs. Jerome I. Berlin, and L. Benjamin Wycoff (1963) stated,

> In the use of these programs two people, strangers or acquaintances, sit side by side and take turns reading the step-by-step instructions aloud and answering questions, discussing items, or going through other special exercises ranging from conversations to role-playing exercises, according to printed instructions given in the program (p.1.).

The theoretical basis of the program is an integration of a "clinical psychological approach" with "operant conditioning methods." The clinical theory is Rogerian utilizing two of Rogers' conditions for growth: one, a relationship must exist between two people; and two, any personal growth of the persons in the relationship is dependent upon the extent to which certain conditions are present in that relationship. The authors cite studies (Halkides (1958) and Barrett-Leonard (1962) to substantiate the success of this approach not only in therapy but outside it. They remark that the approach is also based on "the recently evolving experimental and existential concepts" (p.1).

The experimental part of the theoretical base is Skinnerian operant conditioning methodology. Here the focus is on the individual's history of contingencies between responses and reinforcements as the primary determinant of behavior. The authors refer in a general way to laboratory studies which have consistently demonstrated the reliability of S-R components. Approaches to problems through operant conditioning methods have been scientifically established.

In a summary substantiation of their position the authors, although admitting that the two theories seem quite incompatible, are able to justify the integration of them. They refer to the co-existence in physics of the "particle" and "wave" theories of radiation as a parallel to

their approach. This illustrates the point that two seemingly opposing forces can sometimes be utilized in concert to solve more problems than if they were used separately.

The instructional instrument is a "plastic-bound" book with a built-in sliding mask which exposes one segment of instructions at a time. Two people go through the program together (alternating turns in reading the segments to each other). It consists of the ten one-hour sessions to be taken over a five-to-ten week period.

There are four general aims of the program. The program is structured so that a certain number of sessions are devoted to helping the participants accomplish a particular aim. The first three sessions are geared to assisting the participants achieve the first aim which is "To deepen one's ability to be more aware of his own feelings and the feelings of others" (p.2.) After pointing out the importance of co-operation and the great responsibility that each participant has to the other, the first three sessions spotlight the following principals: (a) feelings can be responded to without making the person feel negative; (b) opposing feelings can be expressed without disaster to the relationship; and (c) feelings underlying verbal behavior can be sensed. The participants are encouraged to react on a feeling level utilizing the various exercises in the program.

Sessions four, five, and six are drafted specifically to teach the second goal which is "to enhance one's appreciation of his own potential." Through illustrations and structured and unstructured interaction exercises the participant is taught that self-understanding occurs most readily when true feelings are appropriately expressed.

The third objective of the program which is, "To increase flexibility in both the emotional and cognitive aspects of behavior," is undertaken in sessions 7, 8, and 9. Self-concept and self-ideal are defined for the participants and it is pointed out that the greater the distance between the two, the more defensive and self-protective is the person's behavior. Specific suggestions are made as to how to vary modes of relating after the participants have examined their fixed patterns of responding.

The tenth and final session is a summary session created to emphasize an important theme of the program which is, "To develop the ability to apply these new behavior patterns to the life situation." This final dyad is devoted to emphasizing that individual change is a continuous process dependent more on emotional integration—internalizing of a concept—than on intellectual understanding.

The program has been tested and researched by the authors for nearly two years using hundreds of tape recordings of test subjects ranging from professional people to high school students. The authors (1963) describe some of the findings:

The extensive testing which was used to control and modify the material presented and the method of presentation yielded highly optimistic expectations of the effectiveness of the program as an agent of change. Several major industrial organizations are in the early stages of evaluation and validation studies. Thus far, the results confirm our expectations. (p.4.)

To date, it appears that only one research article about the *GRIP* has appeared in the literature. Brown and Campbell (1964) compared two matched groups of 10 unmarried, female university students; the experimental group took the General Relationship Improvement Program in 5 weeks while the control subjects attended a psychology of adjustment course for 30 one hour sessions. *The Saslow Expression of Feeling, Check List, Who Knows You Inventory, and* the *MMPI* were administered during pre-, post-, and follow-up testing sessions. Significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups on five of the *MMPI* scales. Changes were indicated at the P. 05 level. It was concluded that the dyadic program was an effective instrument in bringing about measurable personality changes congruent with improved interpersonal relationships.

Human Development Institute, Inc.*—Basic Interpersonal Relations—It is described as a self-directed "small-group program designed to promote personal growth and increase knowledge of some basic principles of human relations." The content of the course, which is presented in five programmed text booklets, deals with basic, introductory principles of interpersonal interaction essential for effective group process. A group of four to seven persons meeting either for an intensive weekend, or for five weekly one and one-half hour sessions is the recommended procedure. Group members take turns reading aloud from the text. This is followed by group and individual participation in role playing and discussion exercises designed to illustrate the text material. Members learn by analysis of their personal, here and now group experiences. The stress is on both the cognitive and affective components of communication.

This is a very adaptable program and one which would seem to provide a worthwhile opportunity for student counselors to learn some of the humanistic qualities. When the practicum is geared for supervision of group counseling experiences this program may be especially valuable and useful. Its producers recommend it as a preliminary phase to the program which will be described next.

Berzon—ENCOUNTERTAPES for Self-Directed Personal Growth Groups—This is an audiotape program for self-directed small groups

* The three programs described on this section are produced by Human Development Institute, Inc., 20 Executive Park West, N.E., Atlanta, Ga. 30329.

originally developed as the PEER Program at the Western Behavioral Sciences Institute. This program was designed and developed by Betty Berzon, Lawrence N. Soloman, and Jerome Reisel.

The program was developed over a three year period of experimentation with self-directed therapy groups and T-groups. From the experimental groups which achieved deeper levels of self-exploration, the researchers culled the most facilitative elements and processes and transposed them in sequence into a written program of therapeutic activities. Eventually the mode of presentation was changed from booklet form to audiotape.

A summary of Berzon and Soloman's (1966) specific program goals are to help the group member experience more fully in awareness his own feelings, how his feelings affect his own behavior, how his personal behavior affects another's feelings, how another's feelings affect his behavior, and how another's behavior affects his personal feelings. These are also the goals of the new ENCOUNTERTAPE program. In addition, advertising material from Human Development Institute, Inc. indicates that involvement in the program may help the participant to become more empathetic towards others and to become more knowledgeable about small group dynamics.

The ENCOUNTERTAPE Program consists of ten 1½ hour sessions with a separate pre-recorded tape of instructions to be played at each session. The complete program contains the ten tape reels, a Coordinator's Manual, and some special materials for use in one of the sessions. The group meets together and follows the directions and explanations given on the tape. Generally each member is encouraged to symbolize what he is experiencing and also to try to listen with relatively accurate understanding when other members are talking. Interwoven throughout all the taped instructions is a continuous emphasis on moving from public to private material, from the there and then to the here and now, and from simple matters to more complex concerns.

Berzon and Solomon (1966) have attempted to validate the program using certain MMPI scales, a questionnaire to tap the group member's perception of therapeutic conditions present in the group, trained judges rating therapeutic processes on two scales measuring facilitative behavior and level of intrapersonal (self) exploration and the member's subjective reports. Generally they found positive changes in member's self concept and a significant increase in self disclosure at the same significant level as that achieved by members of professionally lead, basic encounter groups.

The main thrust of these three self-directed programs is the development and promotion of the three facilitative conditions. The goals of each of these programs, which are extremely similar, are geared to form a foundation for and to stimulate the actual development of the

three experiential-feeling qualities identified by Carkhuff and Truax. For example, the quality or condition of genuineness implies that a person is authentic. This means that he embodies, in their maturing states, a sensitivity to his own and other's feelings, a commendable degree of self understanding, and an openness and flexibility towards his environment. Thus there is a congruency which exists between the operational definitions of Carkhuff and Truax's three facilitative conditions and the goals of these three programs.

These three programs may be economical not only because they release the counselor educator from supervision time, but also because they may provide some readiness for the effective implementation of the integrative and concurrent schemes.

The implications for the counselor educator are that he at least becomes familiar with the basic operation of the program, and, if possible, experience it through direct involvement in it. Implicit, also, is the importance of giving serious consideration towards a commitment to investigate the value of human relations training programs, and to carefully consider their application in counselor education.

Summary and Conclusion

During the last twenty years researchers who have studied the issue of counselor effectiveness have gathered evidence to substantiate the finding that certain humanistic, interpersonal qualities embodied in the counselor and communicated to the client are significant antecedents to constructive personality change. More recently Carkhuff and Truax, and others have specifically identified three of these qualities, namely, genuineness, nonpossessive warmth, and accurate empathy. The primary purpose of this paper was to examine a number of methods, approaches, techniques, and exercises, which might be used as means for helping the beginning counseling psychologist to learn these three particular experiential-feeling qualities. A plan for the student counselor's education was presented in which the traditional small group counseling practicum was preserved as the core around which three operational schemes would be built. Within each of these three schemes, the *integrative*, and *concurrent*, and the *adjunctive* several paradigms for promoting these three experiential-feeling qualities could be used. Since most of these formulas or methods have evolved from the field of human relations training, the implications for the counselor educator were that they give careful consideration to the applicability of the new methods being developed and to the development of a basic competency in this realm of the applied behavioral sciences.

One day not so long ago I watched my son fill a bowl with water, dump the ingredients from as many bottles and boxes as he could find on his mother's kitchen shelves into it, and then stir it until it became

a colorful, messy, glob. When I asked him what he was doing he replied, "I'm experimenting!"

What is being suggested by this simple parable is not a haphazard, impulsive application of programs and methods but rather a plea to seriously consider possible designs for counselor education programs such as the ones presented here. These three schemes for promoting the three facilitative conditions may be employed comprehensively. Any or all of the paradigms and methods in the integrative, concurrent, and adjunctive schemes could be used along with others, proven or untried, which appear to be potentially effective. Both interschematically and intraschematically methods and programs could be integrated, varied, and interchanged. For example, it might be possible to adopt particular sequences from the models of Carkhuff and Truax, and Ivey to form an even more effective educative process for aiding counselors in their affective development.

What could emerge would be a somewhat altered portrait of the counselor education program. The present practicum arrangement would have to be expanded to include the proposed programs. This would require a larger block of time. The counselor educator might be considered a facilitator-technician. Of necessity he would have to be knowledgeable and involved in the field of interpersonal relations with its stress on encounter and here and now behavior. Because of the recent impact of videotape as an effective teaching tool and its proposed incorporation in the program, he would have to be technically advised and abreast of the current research.

Although the tone of this presentation is only suggestive, the need to discover and apply means to promote experiential-feeling qualities in beginning counseling psychologists in order to help them become effective therapists is critical.

Generally counselor educators have realized this, some more than just recently. Since the results of expanding research undeniably demonstrate the significance of counselor communication of experiential-feeling qualities as a factor in successful therapy, it's time to consider another humanistic quality—choice.

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Separation Issues in Supervision of Beginning Students in Counseling

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The supervisory relationship in counseling is one in which the student and supervisor are brought together to achieve certain professional purposes. It is a relationship that exists within the framework of a learning situation in which the supervisor's main function is that of teaching and enabling and the student's that of learning and becoming able. In other words, *the emphasis and focus of supervision is on the tasks to be mastered, while the relationship is the vehicle or means by which the teaching and mastery of learning are to be achieved.* The idea that a counselor who is knowledgeable and competent as a practitioner is, ipso facto, capable of teaching what he knows and practices is a fallacious one. The counseling supervisor must be able to give up the security of his skills as a practitioner and take on a new function, must learn to communicate knowledge and skills to others, adapt to differences in students' learning patterns and styles of helping, differentiate between situational anxieties and neurotically fixed anxiety, etc. Just as a situation of change calls forth in some measure for all of us earlier ways of adaptation, the learning and change necessitated by the assumption of a supervisory role may involve a repetition of old patterns of behavior. Needless to say, the repeating of the past pertains even more strongly to the counseling student, the beginner, who is the "major learner" in the supervisory situation. In this paper, I should like to focus not on the supervisor's role, but on the functioning of the beginning student and specifically on issues in his learning situation that may involve emotional separation from the past.

The Known and the Unknown
A field placement for the beginner in counseling carries with it a double implication of newness and difference from old situations. First, it is an experience in which the old and the new, theory to some degree already learned and practice yet to be learned, are to be integrated and

wed. Secondly, the student is placed in a situation for the purpose of learning those very skills that are quite immediately demanded of him. (Rose, p. 90). The beginning experience, therefore, marks a rather abrupt departure from the comfortable known into the new unknown. Beginning students who have not interrupted their formal education with a work experience, are, in fact, making a break with accustomed patterns of classroom learning, which is characterized by a more passive, dependent role, and turning to activity in undertaking a joint academic and field placement experience. They are beginning two new adventures in human relations simultaneously, that of working with counselees and that of working with a supervisor.

The student feels the pull to make the new situation into one that is old and familiar and able to be mastered in the way that mastery had been managed in the past. This is especially true in the learning experience in counseling, since, as Berl expresses it, "the complex content and requirements of the helping process place unusually heavy demands on the learner" (p. 29). This complexity is larger due to the fact that the student's learning involves not only mastery of factual knowledge, of ways of working, and the development of professional skills but also emotional learning in relation to his own feelings and attitudes and those of his counselees. The fact that counseling is characterized so strongly by both cognitive and affective elements only serves to exacerbate the learner's emotional response, particularly his concerns about the unknown.

The Old and the New

Learning theorists have taught that learning implies change and is accompanied by discomfort and anxiety. Some anxiety is a necessary stimulus to learning, as it helps the student to realign everything he has already learned plus what he is about to learn into new configurations. The student's background and interpretation of his past play a prominent part in this reshaping of perceptions, feelings, and behaviors. Charlotte Towle points out that, regardless of the age of the learner, motivation is a determinant of learning, and that there is a close relationship between early life experiences and educational motivation. This relationship is important, because it determines "whether or not an individual's learning is motivated largely through love and hope or through fear, hostility, and anxiety" (p.67). The particular kind of learning that takes place in a counseling field placement is related to the mastery of ego tasks in the student's own development in a very special way, because it is conceptual learning and implies movement from the specific to the general. The student must be able to conceptualize, to separate out those aspects of the attitudes and behaviors he deals with to find the commonalities, so that he can

transfer his learning from one situation to another. In doing so he must avoid stereotyping and yet be able to see where common themes are expressed. This process involves the ability to partialize his experiences, to transfer learning, and to build new wholes on a conceptual basis. Above all, he must be able to postpone gratification and work currently with a promise of future competence.

For some students, initial difficulties in learning may be only a manifestation of their attempt to master a new experience, to incorporate the new without the fear of abruptly giving up the old. For others, there may be a less transient quality of transferring old issues into the new situation. Separation anxiety has long been recognized in the field of beginning counseling students, although not always so defined, and approach to its management has varied. Walsh, for example, expresses the opinion that it adds to the student's security if he begins to interview counselees as soon as possible "even within the first two weeks of placement" (p.49). She qualifies this recommendation with caution about evaluating the choice of assignment in terms of the theoretical learning the student has already mastered. At the other end of the continuum, Duncan recommends various procedures prior to assignment of cases, in order to lessen initial anxiety for the beginner and equip him to handle beginning interviews—observation of intake and treatment interviews conducted by experienced people, record reading and prior conferencing with the person who is to conduct the interview, observational visits to other agencies, attending staff conferences where case discussion takes place, etc. (p.36). In general, most people in the field feel that using the familiar, for example, reading or the use of observation, as an introduction to practice is a valuable tool to employ.

Regardless of the supervisory approach, the counseling student, who is a young adult and perhaps still involved in his own struggles for emancipation from parents, may react to his new experience with much ambivalence. He is in something of an enforced situation in his placement and in the supervisory relationship. Even if it has been his free choice to pursue a professional career in counseling, he is again required, as he was in earlier learning situations, to learn from the "teacher," the supervisor. Except for his freedom to choose a specific area of counseling, he rarely has a choice of placement or of supervisor. This set of circumstances in itself may engender feelings of dependency and "pose some threat to his concept of self-sufficiency" (Pettes, p. 104).

Differentiation and Self-awareness—A Function of Separation

If learning, growth, and change imply separation from the old and incorporation of the new and different, then change in oneself and

change and differences in others must be faced by the student. He must learn to work with people who are different from himself in life experience, socio-economic level, educational background, attitudes, and beliefs. The very core of the practice he is attempting to master involves helping others to effect change in some way to relieve feelings of stress. People who come to him for such help are "stuck" in some way in old patterns of perceiving, thinking, feeling, and behaving. Counseling deals with dependency problems, love, hostility, often with parent-child relationships overtly or covertly, all of which may have some parallels in the student's own life experience and may stir up personal, subjective responses. If he is to be of help to his counselees, he must begin to be aware of where he himself is glued to issues of the past. The problem of resolving his own earlier conflicts, of recognizing individual differences, and differentiating between himself and others may be an ego task that the student has mastered, but regression in the face of the demands of a new situation may take over. Newness and change may imply for him criticism of his own thoughts, feelings, and values and, at the same time, criticism of important figures in his past life—parents or teachers. Giving up the familiar for the unfamiliar may entail a narcissistic blow, while the wish to make this step may simultaneously be at work.

I recall an experience with a student who was working with a mother around the issue of her son's intense feeling that the girls in the family were preferred and that boys were not valued and were unimportant. The mother worked and found little time to tend to the boy's needs. The mother was expressing much feeling at the time about maternal grandmother's will and was tormented by the thought that she might inherit less than her brother. The student brought in material about the mother's extensive preparations for a visit from her married daughter, her taking time off from work, involvement of the boy in lengthy conversations about the pleasure the mother experienced both before and after the visit, the cancellation of her appointment with the student by the mother because it fell during the few days of the visit. In supervisory discussion, the student was blind to the impact of mother's behavior on the boy, did not relate mother's feelings with maternal uncle and grandmother to her attitude towards her son, and commented that this was how things were in her own family when her married brother came home for a visit and she was "none the worse" for it. It was only later in the year, as her self-awareness grew and with it her ability to separate herself from others, that she was able to deal effectively with these issues.

The beginning student wants to "see" things in a new way but feels reluctant to give up the old way. A potential threat to his self-concept is present in showing his ignorance, exposing himself to disapproval

and criticism, and risking feelings of rejection. The feeling of exposure may be intensified by past experience of an unhappy nature with not knowing, feeling criticized or rejected. If growth in self-awareness is limited and the student remains encumbered by clinging to the past, too much of his energy may go into reducing his level of anxiety and discomfort, and he will have little free energy to learn and master the practice of counseling.

Dependency as a Separation Problem

It is primarily the repetition of old patterns with parents and authority figures that may interfere with the student's learning experience. Submission, the wish to please the parents, may cause the student not only to emulate the supervisor but to try to be completely like him. If he carries this need too far, he may become only an imitator, totally dependent on the supervisor and not free to develop his own creative style. He will not be able to separate out those parts of the professional ego-ideal that are suitable for him and contribute best to the development of his own skill. He may request continuous feeding by the supervisor, be unable to tolerate anxiety, and need to have the "parent" bring immediate relief. It is vital, however, for his growth that he learn to separate a real external emergency from his own inner emergency. It lies with the supervisor to differentiate between dependency which is appropriate in the learner, dependency which is triggered by a search for knowledge and help, and that which represents a wish to placate authority and is an effort to evade the assumption of responsibility. Submissive learning is in direct contrast to an internalized motivation to learn and, because it is dependent on an external force and relationship, it invests supervision with excessive control over the learning process.

Idealization of earlier authority figures that is transferred to the supervisor may gratify both the student and supervisor but is not conducive to effective learning. The assumption that the supervisor not only knows more than the student (he does) but that he is infallible—carries with it the danger of the supervisor's becoming an externalized superego, thereby inviting "responses of fear, dependency, hostility, or conformity" (Austin, p.61). It may also reflect an internalized prohibition against functioning as well as the supervisor, and the student, in a sense, may be fearful of functioning too well. A risk is involved in placing the emphasis of the learning situation on the supervisory relationship rather than on the tasks to be mastered. The submissive attitude invites the intrusion of one's own personal problems rather than those of the practice of counseling into the supervisory experience, because it is an expression of an early mode of adaptation. Here, again, it is up to the supervisor not simply to

accept the student's submissiveness but to encourage and expect him to assume self-responsibility, recognizing that this may be a new kind of experience for the student in his relation to authority. It is only in this way that the student learns that he can take responsibility and thus increase his capacity to do so.

Needless to say, the avenues for reenactment of dependency needs and separation problems are numerous. Reactions to the absence of a supervisor, change in the hour of supervision, ending of the supervisory hour may reflect these issues. Similar responses may arise out of old sibling-rivalry residua, whether in group supervision or in individual supervision where the student is only one of a number of students in a placement situation. These are but some of the many, "homely" situations that may eventuate from the intrusion of the old issues in the new experience.

Excessive Independence as a Separation Issue

Additional hazards are inherent in the student's perpetuating his lack of separation from experiences and relationships in the past. Resistance to supervision is also a possible outcome of unresolved earlier relationships. New learning implies in part a rejection of old ideas and behaviors. Since the latter emanate from earlier "ego-ideal" figures, identifying with a new model may mean rejection of earlier significant figures. Whether the student reacts with a feeling of "disloyalty" (Kadushin, p.24) to earlier identification models or resolves the conflict by rejecting the supervisor as teacher, these feelings arouse anxiety that may disturb the learning situation.

A capacity for trust in others is a component of the internal conditions necessary for successful learning in counseling. The overly-independent student may present a fear of dependence, a lack of trust, and a fear of being controlled. It lies with the supervisor to distinguish whether slow progress is due to lack of skill, misunderstanding, or an avoidance of turning to authority and use of supervision. Learning takes place in part by direct experience and in part through acceptance of the tested experience of others. To delete the latter as a result of unhappy experiences with trusting and depending out of the past may grossly affect the learning experience. Old feelings that no one can be relied on, that depending on others is risky, is not evidence of real independence and may express itself in a rigidity of attitude that shuts out learning, in inappropriate demands, a by-passing of agency or school procedures, minor irregularities and infringement on rules, etc. For such students, the setting of controls and limits together with a kind, concerned, and giving supervisory climate may be a new experience.

Summary

It is not an easy task, then, for the beginner in counseling to deal with the transition from the familiar to the unfamiliar, from the old to the new, to become more aware of his own feelings and those of others, particularly when affective elements are so much a part of his learning process. His old patterns may invade the supervisory relationship and interfere with the dynamic enabling process in supervision (Williamson, p.19) that eventuates in the development of a professional attitude and self-concept, one of responsible caring about his work. Learning implies change and, however much wanted, may simultaneously be feared and resisted. Despite the fact that problems of emotional separation from the past may be a large factor in the fear and resistance, it is the responsibility of both student and supervisor to deal with supervision as a learning experience rather than as a therapeutic one. This means that only those old issues that interfere with the student's functioning as a counselor and which pertain to the content of his experience as a trainee have an appropriate place in supervision.

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The Supervisor's Changing Role in Counselor Training

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A supervisor of neophyte counselors must be willing to accept responsibility for their professional development. Full acceptance of this responsibility requires that during the period of training, which includes field placement, the supervisor has to assume several different but intertwining roles. The subtle change of these roles is associated with beginning, middle, and ending phases of supervision. In the beginning and middle phases of training, the supervisory role is mainly one of administrator and teacher. During the latter part of the middle phase and start of ending phase, the role of consultant and evaluator become prominent. Hopefully, at the conclusion of successful supervision a colleague role may be assumed.

Williamson (1961) stresses the supervisory importance of establishing a sound and potentially productive relationship, which can become complicated when respective roles are not clear. It is necessary therefore that the supervisor make a conscious and continuous effort to establish and interpret his own true role. The purpose of this paper is to explore more deeply some of the time-phase psychological aspects and responsibilities of supervision when viewed as a process within these various roles.

	Process of Supervision		
	Beginning	Middle	Ending
	Administrator		
Roles Assumed	Teacher		
		Consultant	
		Evaluator	
			Colleague

The model of supervision referred to will be that presently used at Boston University to train counselors in the Masters program.

The year field practicum in counselor training consists of three distinctive periods:

1. A two month orientation at the university consisting of large weekly 3-hour classes.

2. A two month adjustment period in a field placement (2 days/week) with weekly 1½ hour meetings at the university in small groups of six trainees. Doctoral candidates in the counselor education program act as direct university supervisors. They in turn are assigned to a faculty member in the department for supervisory purposes.
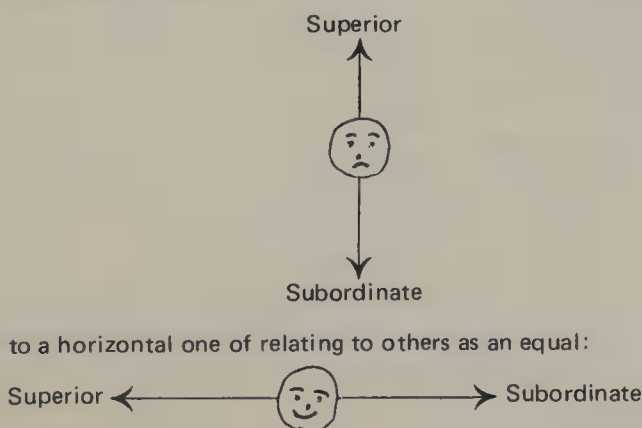
3. A four month training experience in field placements (2 days/week) with a field supervisor plus weekly 3 hour meetings in small groups with university supervisors. Audio tape recordings and critiques of counseling sessions are required.

Supervisory roles described will pertain mostly to those responsible for supervision in small groups at the university (doctoral candidates). However, this supervisory responsibility is shared by field supervisors and university faculty members as well.

Crosby (1957) believes everyone concerned has a role of importance in effective supervision. Burton and Brueckner (1955) believe "democracy substitutes leadership for authority." Franseth (1961) refers to good supervision as a helping kind of activity. She feels that telling people what to do or manipulating them fosters conformity and mediocrity. In essence the present thesis is in agreement with the authors cited, but it is felt that relationship qualities need to be spelled out more explicitly since it is basic to all roles that a supervisor must assume.

To establish effective relationships with others and become effective as a supervisor (or counselor) there are three necessary attitudes. These attitudes are heirarchical in that the first must be accomplished before the other two can be achieved.

1. Self-attitude must be adjusted to the existing societal structure of

Superior

Subordinate

to a horizontal one of relating to others as an equal:

Superior ←————————→ Subordinate

This concept of "anything that happens to anyone else could happen to me" or (in biblical language) "there but for the grace of God go I" should be an integral part of every supervisor and counselor. Unfortunately our society does not teach us to relate as equals too well; this concept must be "learned" through appropriate experience. A small group of supervisees intent on developing their professional competence should respond well to this learning if it is embodied by their supervisor. In addition, unhealthy pressures of competition among group members is thus reduced to a minimum.

2. Respect the limitations of others and thus free them to grow at their own pace. This attitude can be an important catalyst in small group sharing, as well as vital to later counseling success.

3. Desire to develop greater sensitivity skills in empathizing with other human beings. This attitude is cardinal for successful counseling, but also provides group support during the training period.

The above attitudes of the supervisor establish the beginning climate for learning within the group of trainees. However, another important psychological phenomena is universally present with beginning a new experience (such as training in a field placement) which a supervisor can use to good advantage if he is aware of it. Smalley (1967) discusses the conscious and knowing use of time phases (beginnings, middles, and endings) in facilitating the learning process. Beginning any venture in which there are elements of the unknown leads inevitably to feelings of hope, excitement, and the mobilization of energy (new birth). This is particularly true in a venture involving human relationships where one is expected to do or become something. At the same time it evokes fear, uncertainty, and resistance; perhaps to protect a hardly won inner balance and sense of integrity. Rose (1965) recognized this insecurity among students beginning a field placement. The student is confronted—intellectually, at least—with a set of criteria for performance with which he cannot yet cope; he is placed in this situation for the purpose of learning the very skills already demanded of him. In this situation a beginning student can only with difficulty accept responsibility for his own inadequacies in dealing with human relations problems. He will probably project this responsibility (in the form of criticism) onto the supervisor who he feels is denying him "direct" answers to questions. Rose in his study found that student criticism of supervisors decreased considerably when they neared completion of their training. Effective supervisors in the role of administrator understand the psychology of "being an administrator" and "being administered"—he is responsible for the one and responsive to the other. He is aware of the orgin of student criticism and uses this knowledge to capitalize on the positive aspects of beginnings and reduce the negative ones.

Specifically the administrator can reduce fear and uncertainty by making the unknown known. He can define clearly the long term goals, intermediate requirements to accomplish these goals, and share with trainees the method to be used in evaluation of their performance. After this global purpose is presented it is then broken down into a smaller and more manageable purpose for the trainee to get started. Trying to do everything at once creates confusion and frustration.

Administratively the supervisor's initial narrowing down of purpose has to do with the trainees particular field placement. Contact with field supervisors and the same clarification of eventual goals, requirements, and evaluative methods can pave the way for the establishment of an effective field relationship. Both field supervisor and trainee approach their new relationship with similar expectations.

In addition there is another administrative responsibility during this second training period (adjustment) which concerns trainee adaptation to a new work situation. MacIntire (1966) in a culmination of several developmental schemas Havighurst (1953) Erickson (1963) and Maslow's (1962) hierarchy of needs proposed a simple theory on adaptation. He believes that before a person can become productive they must pass through the following three stages:

1. Satisfy personal needs (will I have a regular office to use? what vacation time do I have? how far do I have to travel to get there?)
2. Learn signs and symbols basic to the new situation (bell schedules, reporting procedures, policies, does O.D. mean office detention?")
3. Establish satisfactory working relationships to those working immediately with him (administrators, teachers, other counselors, clients).

The first and third stages are related to emotional maturity; the second, to intelligence. MacIntire postulates that the person others wish to employ is the one who can pass through these three stages in minimal time and thus become a contributing employee. Field work experience affords an excellent trial opportunity for the aspiring counselor to assess his own capacity to adapt and contribute. Helping him with this assessment is a supervisory responsibility.

A teacher role is of primary importance when starting the third period of counselor training (actual performance of counselor functions in the field). To be successful as a teacher a supervisor must have some knowledge of previous research in the subject area he expects to teach . . . namely, the training of counselors. Golub (1968) surveyed the research literature to assess whether researchers have discovered any consistent relationship between training techniques and specific changes in trainee behavior which was therapeutic for clients. She

finds that the publication trend since early 1960s has been to provide some objective validation of the utility of training programs (before this time most studies were descriptive without empirical evidence).

Training techniques that seem to have met with some measure of empirical success according to the literature are those of Carkhuff and Truax (1965a) and Ivey et. al. (1968). It seems reasonable to expect that a university supervisor who takes his teaching role seriously would incorporate some of these techniques into his training program. A basic task in supervision of beginning counselors is to help them relax and pay attention to their client. Such things as eye contact, movements and gestures which communicate attentiveness, verbal following, reflection and summarization of feeling can be stressed through use of video taping with immediate feedback. Trend analyses indicate that a beginning counselor can be conditioned to increase his attending behavior if he is re-inforced by the supervisor (and his clients) for such behavior.

Discussion of tape recorded interviews and critiques are also important teaching functions. Learning through mistakes can frequently be the most powerful ingredient in any behavior modification which may be necessary for counseling competency. Threat involved in this "negative learning" can be reduced by the supervisor's willingness to share some of his own mistakes, either tapes or experience. A feeling of cooperative group sharing and caring is necessary if this is to be a meaningful experience for trainees. The supervisor has a teaching responsibility to promote this atmosphere.

Austin (1956, 1963) in pointing up the major negative factors in social work supervision felt that administrative and teaching functions should not be carried out by the same person. Her objections to this dual role were that it tended toward a concentration of power in one person and was an overly complex assignment for the supervisor.

With administrative attitudes and responsibilities as defined here in supervision of counselors the notion of "power" is not a factor. Also, administration, teaching, and evaluation are shared roles between the field and university supervisors (according to the training model set forth). This system reduces concentration of power and complexity of assignment. In addition one can only agree with Leyendecker's (1959) strong objection to this separation on the grounds that it adds only more complexity to already overtaxed role differentiations and communications.

Since this constitutes the large middle phase of training it is well to again consider Smalley's (1967) concept of the psychological components of middles; the slump that follows the exhilaration of beginning and precedes the getting ready to end and continue on one's own. However, flat, stale, and unprofitable middles can be avoided

when a supervisee takes increasing responsibility for his part in the situation and by a deepening of the relationships involved. An alert supervisor will promote and encourage more trainee involvement to avoid this pitfall.

It is at this point that a supervisor gradually begins to move from the teacher to the consultant role. This gradual movement and change of role parallels the increasing professional development of each trainee. The supervisory role moves from overseeing the work of another with responsibility for its quality to one of giving professional advice and service when needed (Webster, 1953). This consultant role is a means of introducing and preparing the supervisee for the ending phase of supervision. It can serve as an incentive to use present and remaining supervisory time to best advantage. Trainees can be encouraged to analyze their group experience together. Activities are initiated which provide each trainee with opportunities to develop himself, make decisions about his own role and future goals; in other words qualities of self-actualization are stimulated.

As a consultant the supervisor must make himself available; particularly for individual conferences to discuss trainee progress and problems. This consultive role can be instrumental in gaining important mutual self-awareness. At this time the consultant role begins to merge with that of evaluator.

The main purpose of evaluation is not to assign a letter "grade" for a required course taken, but rather to help the trainee learn about himself. Learn what the standard requirements are for the profession he wishes to enter. What will be expected of him in the way of acquired knowledge and personal qualities? Is he ready and qualified now to assume this professional responsibility?

The trend in modern counseling has changed from decisions *about* a person to decisions *by* a person due in great part to the influence of Rogers (1961). This trend should carry over into the supervisor's evaluative role as well. A grade should represent a realistic and objective appraisal (a joint supervisory responsibility by our model) of trainee performance in a professional setting. The reasons for giving a particular grade should be discussed with the student. Otherwise the grade cannot be used for its main purpose—student learning and self-evaluation—and is meaningless! Decisions as to how to use information gained by this appraisal for his future development must be made by the trainee.

As Tyler says (1956): "What a person has done is one of our best clues to what he is and, therefore, to what he is likely to do in the future in situations involving similar psychological requirements."

An often quoted statistic is that about 70% of all dismissals in any kind of work involving interpersonal relations are due to social and

emotional incapacity, not technical incompetence. This ability to relate to others in a productive way is essential for counselors. Counselor supervisors should be sensitive to individual trainee assets and liabilities and their capacity to overcome or modify liabilities. Assuming counselors enter the profession because of their basic concern for other human beings, the role of evaluator in supervision can be a confusing and painful one.

However, it is this very concern for others in the largest sense (trainee and future trainee clients) which makes it necessary for a supervisor to accept the responsibility for evaluation. It is closely allied with the attitude of respecting the limitations of others cited earlier in this paper. It *does not* imply that the trainee is an inferior human being. It *does* imply supervisory respect and caring. Some might take issue with this point of view . . . "what makes you think you can play God?" The truth of the matter is all of us "play God" to some extent every day in our judgment of other human beings. Effective living (and counseling) demands this from all of us.

What does a supervisor do when faced with a trainee during the evaluation period who is emotionally and socially inadequate for the counseling task . . . unable to relate in a meaningful and beneficial way to others? What is needed is perspective and caring for the trainee's future plus courage to do the unpleasant. The psychological need to be liked must be set aside in the name of honesty. Misguided kindness can perpetuate the greatest unkindness of all in human development, that of deceit! (Tyler, 1956). In this role understanding and help is offered; if possible alternative but realistic goals can be discussed.

Development as a counselor is a continuing and life long process that grows with a wealth of experience. Naturally 6 months placement in a field setting will only scratch the surface; only provide the trainee with an idea of some of the requirements and functions of a counselor. Indeed the main value of field placement, coupled with increasing self-knowledge, may be in helping the trainee re-evaluate his goals. He may decide after more direct experience and exposure that counseling is not a profession which would bring personal satisfaction.

During the ending phase the supervisor can again capitalize on positive psychological aspects of endings as described by Smalley. Just as beginnings are imbued with feelings of birth, so endings to some extent are imbued with feelings of death . . . of separation. If the supervisory experience has been one of significance it is hard to end and may be resisted. Yet in an ambivalent way endings are welcomed, for every ending carries within it the potential for a feeling of accomplishment; a sense of something lived through and taken into the self. There is a wish for freedom, independence, and opportunities to apply new skills acquired.

In this final phase the supervisor can give every member of the small group a sense of some accomplishment. For those who must or wish to enter professions other than therapeutic counseling, important decisions and discoveries have been made; discoveries and decisions vital to their future success and happiness. The supervisory role remains one of understanding consultant.

For those successfully completing counselor training and entering the profession the role changes to one of colleague. Webster (1953) defines colleague as an associate in a profession. This is an important but subtle distinction from other roles and serves two functions. First, it severs any dependent connections associated in the former supervisor-supervisee relationship and encourages the former trainee to independently move forward in his chosen counselor direction. Secondly, the colleague role has inherent qualities of alliance and communicates the idea of professional inter-dependence which is important for further counselor growth in expertise.

Supervisory responsibility in counselor education and training seems to be a foggy and controversial issue. An attempt has been made to penetrate this fog by placing supervisory responsibilities within the context of roles assumed during different time phases of supervision process. At least personal convictions on the subject have been set forth. At most, some of the fog may lift to provide clearer vision.

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Beyond Empathy

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Rogers and the client-centered school of counseling and psychotherapy has emphasized the importance of empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness as necessary and sufficient counselor attitudes in the therapeutic process. Rogers (1951, p. 435) makes it clear that a background of conventional psychological training is not a necessity for a therapist or counselor. In fact, he states (Rogers, 1951, p.437) that the more one has been able to achieve empathic experiences with other people the better will his preparation as a therapist be. In 1957, Rogers discussed the necessary and sufficient conditions of personality change. In this classic paper, he emphasized that the therapist accurately and empathically know the client and respond in such a way as to communicate this deep understanding. He also stressed the importance of nonpossessive warmth, acceptance of the client (unconditional positive regard) and that the therapist be integrated, mature, and genuine (congruent) within the counseling or therapeutic relationship. It seems that these elements of the psychotherapeutic relationship cut across a wide variety of theories of psychotherapy.

However, it is this writer's contention that too often counselor training programs, especially where the emphasis is philosophical, existential, and there is limited exposure to psychological foundations, that students learn and are taught that all people grow, improve and change solely due to high accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness. While these conditions are probably necessary, they are not sufficient. Hans Strupp in 1957 (cited by Reiss 1960) offered a more complete set of hypothesis about psychotherapy. "Psychotherapy is maximally effective when the therapist is able (a) to relate to the patient in a warm, empathic manner, so that the person of the therapist, as revealed in this relationship, will, in time, serve as a new, more mature, and more desirable model of reality than past inter-personal relationships; and (b) by appropriate technical devices to demonstrate . . . the self-defeating character of the patient . . . psychotherapy is less

effective when only the first condition is met and least effective when the first condition is lacking."

Truax and Carkhuff have reported a wide range of studies to support Rogers' facilitative conditions. They have used these conditions as the basis for counselor training. Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967) offer summaries of the data indicating a relationship between counselor offered conditions and client movement and outcome. Truax and Carkhuff (1965) found support for a significant relationship between therapist self-congruence and the patients level of self-disclosure. Martin, Carkhuff and Berenson (1966) found a counselor offered greater facilitative conditions than a counsellees' "best available friend." Carkhuff (1967) outlined a fairly comprehensive model of facilitative interpersonal processes.

Carkhuff (1966, 1968) goes so far as to indicate that only lay counselor training programs geared primarily to assisting the trainees to become their most facilitative selves have demonstrated their effect outcomes. Carkhuff (1966) suggests that lay trainees can accomplish in counseling and therapy anything that their supervisors can accomplish. In fact, he cites evidence (Carkhuff 1968) that with or without training and/or supervision the patients of lay counselors do as well as or better than patients of professional counselors. Carkhuff, Kralochvil and Friel (1968) research showed a decline (nonsignificant) in the levels of empathy, regard, genuineness, concreteness, self-disclosure and overall level of conditions communicated by clinical trainees from beginning to more advanced states of training. This would tend to mean training has a negative effect. Further, they found trainees moved in the direction of the level of functioning of their professors.

Hautras, P. T. and Anderson, D. L. (1969) found significant relationships between empathy, respect, and genuineness, and self-exploration in each problem category for counseling center clients of both males and females.

However, Truax Carkhuff and the other researchers cited above, fail to convince this writer of the overwhelming power of a therapist of high accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness to cure everybody. This type of research falsely assumes that clients are all alike. Kiesler (1966) has very ably shown that patient uniformity is a myth. Secondly, they falsely assume that a particular counselor's level of empathy remains constant regardless of his client. There is ample evidence that different clients elicit different responses from the same therapist (e.g., Bohn, 1967; Bandura, Lipsher and Miller, 1960; Heller, Myers and Kline, 1963; Russell and Snyder, 1963; and Rogers, 1967). Rogers (1967, p.89) says it this way: "the characteristics of the client or patient influence the relationship which is formed between himself and the therapist."

In other cases it is not clear that the results reported are actually due to the power of accurate empathy and nonpossessive warmth. Frequently self-exploration or transparency during psychotherapy is the criteria. In many cases it has not been shown that these criteria relate to constructive personality change in the client. In fact, in one specific case (Truax and Carkhuff, 1965) found that delinquents in group therapy who showed less self-exploration showed greater positive personality change. While this finding is a contradiction of their hypothesis, one possible explanation is that not all people benefit from the same type of treatment.

Another criticism of their research is that many of their constructs are global, poorly defined and their ratings are often highly inferential (Ford and Urban, 1967, p.351).

Cartwright (1968, p.395) is critical of much of Truax and Carkhuff's work. In particular a study by Truax, Wargo and Siber (1966) is cited. "The important difference emphasized by the authors was in the amount of time spent outside the institution after treatment. Here the treated patients were clearly more able to get out and stay out of the hospital more often. What all of this has got to do with high accurate empathy and nonpossessive warmth is unclear, (also what happened to genuineness?)."

In any regard, this writer questions whether the so called "facilitative conditions" are necessary and sufficient to account for change in all people. In particular it is clear that these conditions are not sufficient to account for the differences between therapeutic and nontherapeutic outcomes.

As indicated previously, this writer believes that Strupp's (1957) view is more complete than Roger's (1957) view. Strupp has added to the facilitative conditions the use of counseling techniques. However, it seems that even Carkhuff has moved in this direction. Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) state that a counselor is tender, gentle, loving and passive-receptive but also active, assertive, and able to confront and interpret. Carkhuff (1969b) outlines the critical variables in effective counselor training; "level of trainer functioning on facilitative and action-oriented dimensions; level of trainee functioning and type of program. Trainees tend to gain the most with high level trainees and lose the most or terminate with low-level trainees. The most effective programs were those concentrating systematically and behaviorally upon the facilitative and action-oriented dimensions."

In particular, there is evidence that confrontation is a sound counseling technique. Anderson (1968 & 1969) has attempted to go beyond empathy when she studied the therapist's behavior of confrontation. A confrontation occurs when the client discusses himself or his situation in a way that is clearly discrepant with the way the therapist views

the same situation. It, of course, means that the therapist points out to the client the discrepancy. Anderson found confrontation to be related to increased client self-exploration but was greater when the therapist was high in the "facilitating conditions." There is a ring of truth in this research. Client behavior change takes more than empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness. In general, my experience indicates that reflection and clarification of feelings helps build a sound therapeutic relationship (therapeutic alliance) but that more is needed for client behavior change.

A counselor training program that teaches only the "facilitating conditions" and reflection and clarification is too limited. In particular the dimension of appropriate therapist action (confrontation, limit setting, explicit contracts or agreements and interpretations) becomes lost much too frequently. Rogers exhibits a good deal of appropriate action in his counseling, but somehow many students tend not to assimilate this. One of the reasons for this being missed is that many counselors enter counseling "to help people." Therefore, they place a high value on empathy, warmth, genuineness and intimacy.

In general it seems there are two dimensions or styles of relating which the counselor educator must be cognizant of. First there is the counselor-in-training who is active, assertive, and able to learn how and when to confront and interpret. If this person is as comfortable with his intimacy needs as he is with his assertive needs; he will be capable of being tender, gentle, loving, passive-receptive and empathic. In this case, the supervisor's task is to help this counselor-in-training learn when and how to be active or passive. The emphasis would tend to help tone down the counselor's action and aggressive behavior. However, if the counselor-in-training is active, aggressive and conflicted about his intimacy needs; he will find it difficult to be tender, gentle, loving, passive-receptive and empathic. In all likelihood he will be too hostile and aggressive in his relationships to function as a counselor. The supervisor's task would be to help him curtail his hostile assaults on clients. In the end the supervisor may have to either recommend personal analysis and/or a change of careers for such a person.

Second, there is the counselor-in-training who is by character tender, gentle, loving, passive-receptive and empathic. If he is also comfortable with his aggressive and assertive needs; he will be able to be active, and be able to learn how and when to confront, set limits and interpret client behavior. In this situation the supervisor's task is to help the counselor-in-training become active in an appropriate manner, i.e., to learn the techniques of confrontation, limit setting, making contracts and interpretations. However, if the counselor-in-training is too passive-receptive, gentle, tender in character style to be comfortable with

his aggressive and assertive needs; he will find it very difficult to be appropriately active and to learn when and how to confront, set limits, make contracts and interpret. While he would rarely hurt or be detrimental to a client his ability to be a fully functioning counselor will be limited. The task of the supervisor is to help him be appropriately assertive by confronting him gently but firmly with his difficulty in accepting aggressive behavior in others and himself. Some personal psychotherapy would be a definite asset to this person.

This second style of relating seems far more common than the first. These counselors range from having little difficulty to having a great deal of difficulty accepting aggressive behavior. One result is that they tend to defend against being aggressive, assertive and active by retreating into a nondirective passive stance. They will rationalize to themselves and others that they are "client-centered." They will focus on empathy, warmth, genuineness and on reflection and clarification as a defense against internal assertive needs and external aggressive behavior. Therefore, in varying degrees, they find it much more difficult to set limits, make explicit agreements, confront and interpret client behavior even when it is in the best interest of their client. In other words they are unable to be appropriately active and assertive because this is perceived as being hostile or nonempathic and as an inhibitor of their intimacy with a client. These people need to have their clients like and accept them.

There are a few studies in the literature which bear on the issue of counselor-client relationships in respect to hostility. Bandura, Lipsher and Miller (1960) found that therapists who typically expressed their own hostility in direct forms, and who displayed low need for approval, were more likely to permit and encourage their patient's hostility than were therapists who expressed little direct hostility and who showed high approval seeking behavior. Further, psychotherapists were more likely to avoid hostility when it was directed toward themselves than when the patients directed their hostility toward others. The patients were more likely to drop the hostile topic or to change the object of their hostility following therapist's avoidance reactions than they were following the therapist's approach reaction.

Russell and Snyder (1963) found that hostile client behavior produced more anxiety in counselors than did friendly client behavior. The amount of graduate training and counseling experience had little effect on the degree of counselor anxiety in either hostile or friendly interviews. However, the experienced counselors did not necessarily have experience with hostile clients. Therefore we see there is a need for counselors-in-training to have hostile clients. They will need to have the benefit of supervision of their work with hostile clients in

order for them to overcome their anxiety and their avoidance of hostility.

In a study by Heller, Myers, and Kline (1963) both client hostility and client dependency were simultaneously manipulated. As predicted, therapists were more likely to be directive and reassuring in response to dependency. In response to hostility, therapists were more likely to respond in a less friendly or avoidant manner.

At this point one might ask, how is a supervisor to help his counselor-in-training? In general, this writer adheres to Reiss' view (1958, p.113). "The supervisor helps the trainee, (a) to develop skills, (b) to recognize the areas and ways in which the therapist's character problems enter into the therapeutic relationship, and (c) to overcome resistance to learning. Ekstein and Wallerstein (1958) take a similar position. In particular they discuss some splendid examples of therapist's learning blocks and how they could be dealt with.

It is this writer's intention to discuss and illustrate by example from his own experience how a supervisor can help a counselor go beyond empathy. First the technique of confrontation will be discussed.

A young counselor finally got around to making his first confrontation. The client reacted by crying and saying, "I didn't know that, does that mean I'm crazy?" The counselor's confrontation was later judged to be correct by 5 peers and two supervisors. The client was not crazy. In fact she returned the next session having integrated and worked with the counselor's response during the week. However, the neophyte counselor felt as though his confrontation had hurt, maybe even destroyed the client (made her crazy). His anxiety about his action was aroused because he had appropriately attacked a client's defense. gentleness and passive-receptiveness to a more aggressive assertive response. He believed that no empathic person is supposed to make a client cry or be sad. In other words, the counselor's anxiety was aroused because he had appropriately attached a client's defense. The client reacted to the realization of her ineffectiveness with feelings of sadness. Fortunately the counselor was correct in his confrontation. He received support for his appropriate action from his peer group, his supervisor and from his client who not only returned (wasn't destroyed) but had been able to use the confrontation. Thus we see the importance of support and reward in furthering the counselor's own learning and growth. However, there are times when a supervisor has to go beyond supporting appropriate (assertive) behavior in the counselor-in-training. In particular, confronting a counselor's style is a useful technique to enhance learning. This would appear to be especially true when there is a sound supervisory relationship and both counselor and supervisor are relatively emotionally stable. In the above example, the supervisor would not only give support to the counselor for his

appropriate action but point out that the client's crying was probably due to some affective awareness of the ineffectiveness of her self-defeating behavior. Further, if possible, the supervisor drawing from previous experience with this counselor-in-training should confront him, at some point, with the underlying issue. For example, the supervisor might say: "You seem comfortable being empathic with your clients but seem afraid of hurting them," or "Your work indicates you are able to feel closeness and build a sound relationship with your clients, but tends to break down when it is appropriate for you to become more active"; or even more directly, "You seem to link your action as a counselor with being aggressive or destructive." Time must be allowed for adequate discussion of the feelings generated, but the supervisor should not allow the counselor to translate supervision into therapy. This can be done by keeping the focus on the client-counselor relationship and the counselor-supervisory relationship. If the counselor cannot keep this focus it is the supervisor's role to set appropriate limits.

However, if the supervisor has been able to appropriately confront his counselor-in-training, this act itself will serve as a means of learning appropriate action, i.e., role modeling. The supervisor has two alternatives after a confrontation has been made. He may just let the confrontation sink in or he may deem it necessary to point out, at some time, that he used the technique. If at some time he or the counselor bring up the confrontation, the merits and disadvantages should be openly discussed. The counselor will, in any case, be able to emotionally experience the confrontation and feel its effect personally.

While the number of counseling techniques is endless and the types of counselor-in-training learning blocks countless, one more active technique will be discussed here: limit setting.

Coopersmith (1967) has reported extensive research on the antecedents of self-esteem. He has summarized three conditions associated with high self-esteem. "Total or nearly total *acceptance* of the children by their parents; clearly defined and enforced *limits*, and the *respect* and latitude for individual action that exists within the defined limits. In effect we can conclude that the parents of children with high self-esteem are concerned and attentive towards their children, that they structure the worlds of their children along lines they believe to be proper and appropriate, and that they permit relatively great freedom within the structures they have established." (p.236)

While Coopersmith's research was not done within a counseling situation it is applicable. The two conditions of acceptance and respect seem to be very similar to the counselor attitudes of unconditional positive regard and nonpossessive warmth. Second, self-esteem is a variable often studied by counselors. Third, self-esteem is a variable sub-

sumed under the more general self-concept which has been studied prodigiously. Finally, in this writer's experience, limit setting is a very helpful counseling technique. It enhances client growth, movement, and self-esteem.

A counselor-in-training was beginning to see a client who was taking drugs. The counselor voiced concern over the client's use of LSD. The supervisor suggested that the counseling contract be established including appropriate limits. The limits suggested were that the client refrain from further use of hallucenogenic drugs while he was being seen in counseling. It was explained that this would help the counselor help the client sort out "real" feelings and actions rather than drug induced behavior. However, the counselor found this approach difficult to accept. The reason given was, "I don't like to make value judgments about people and he (the client) would feel rejected."

In this situation the supervisor has at least three basic options:

(a) to accept the counselor's rationale unconditionally
(b) to accept the counselor's response but make a mental note of it and file away his own hypothesis about the counselor's behavior
(c) challenge the counselor, perhaps even setting limits on the counselor

If the supervisor chooses option (a), no further action is called for. He is assuming a gentle and perhaps passive-receptive stance. If the supervisor chooses option (b), a mental note is made. In this case the supervisor chose (b) and noted that the counselor-in-training was anxious about limit setting because self-asserting came in conflict with his intimacy needs. Further, the counselor seemed anxious about getting rejected by his client. The supervisor must now wait for confirmation, clarification or other data to dismiss this initial hypothesis. If the supervisor chooses option (c), he has several general alternatives. The most effective is to help the counselor deal with the underlying issues that block the counselor's learning. He may seek to intervene cognitively. For example he might say, "This kind of counselor limit setting response speaks to the ego or positive self image. It says to the client, you can control your life if you understand your behavior and experience the feelings that accompany the behavior. Technically you are asking the client to deal not with symptomatic behavior but with his feelings and underlying issues." The counselor might say "it sounds so authoritarian or parental, I don't see how it could help." The supervisor might continue; "In my experience many clients accept, even welcome, appropriate limits. However, even if the client perceives that your limit setting response is parental or authoritarian, this is not reason enough to reject limit setting. In fact, one way for

counseling to enhance growth is to help a client sort out and deal with his feelings towards parents and authority. This can be accomplished within the counseling relationship if some of the feelings towards authority are present in the counseling relationship. If you become aware of the anger towards you, don't avoid these negative feelings, make them part of your work together. You may find that some important issues can be worked through."

The supervisor may elect a less cognitive and more affective approach to dealing with the underlying issue blocking the learning process. He might then say; "It seems as though you are anxious about your client rejecting you" or "You seem to have difficulty being appropriately active with your clients" or "You seem particularly tense when you are asked to assert yourself. Are you afraid that self-assertion will interfere with getting to know your clients?" Time must be allowed to deal with the feelings generated but the supervisor must always be on the alert not to be seduced into a counseling or therapeutic relationship with the counselor-in-training.

Unfortunately the supervisor may choose option (c) and demand that the counselor set the limit or else, e.g., have the client taken away from him. In such a situation the supervisor is setting very stringent and demanding limits on his counselor-in-training. Limit setting may be an appropriate action with one's trainees and there may even be a situation where a supervisor is justified in "taking away" or "taking over a client." However, it seems generally an inappropriate action because it robs the counselor of self-esteem and his potential to cope and to learn. This supervisor seems to be overly active, aggressive and overauthoritarian. Reiss (1960, p.116) discusses the overauthoritative supervisor as reacting to the helplessness and anxiety of the student counselor by being patronizing or demanding of exact conformity.

From our previous discussion we see that both supervisors and counselors-in-training must be aware of both the passive and active dimensions of themselves. It is the task of the supervisor to distinguish between those counselor characteristics that block the process of learning and legitimate differences in counseling style.

The supervisor must not allow his own anxiety to cause him to be so active as to be patronizing or demanding of conformity. On the other hand, he must be careful not to be seduced into a passive or inactive role by the idea that differences in style explain a lack of learning. Learning by definition indicates change, but change even in the healthiest individual is often steadfastly resisted. Thus both counselors and supervisors need to be beyond empathy and actively deal with the resistances to learning.

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Some Elements in Supervisor Evaluation of Field Work Students

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At a time when educational institutions are moving away from objective evaluation of students, and, in a field where the word "judgmental" is almost an obscenity, the supervisor of field work students may approach his inevitable role as evaluator with something less than enthusiasm.

Evaluation seen primarily as the terminal step in the student's field work placement is little more than judging and labelling according to that judgment. But dealt with as part of an ongoing process that enables supervisor and student to focus on directions most beneficial to the student's professional development, the final evaluation can become an effective learning instrument in itself, with much of the sting removed.

Field work evaluation has several purposes, serving the needs of the school, the agency, and the student himself. The school must determine whether the student is functioning satisfactorily for his level of education; the clinic must know whether the needs of the clients seen by the student are being met; and the student must know how he's doing in order to make both short and long-term decisions regarding his professional future. It is in this last area that the procedures used by the supervisor can substantially increase the value of evaluation to the student.

Preparation for evaluation should begin early in the placement, presented either by the academic instructor, or by the supervisor once the student has come to the placement, so that it may be seen as a continuum. (Pettes). Since evaluation is implicit or explicit in virtually every supervisory session, the student should have a fair idea of his strengths and weaknesses as he goes along. The final evaluation should be a bringing into focus of the various elements already discussed, and a review of growth since the beginning of the placement.

The supervisor's thoughts about the student's functioning should never come as a surprise to the student at the evaluation session.

The number of evaluation sessions may vary with the length of the placement. Though the student's course may require only a final evaluation, unless the period is very brief, it is advisable to have at least one interim session, and in a year-long placement, conferences at 3-month intervals are suggested by Pettes. Timing considerations also involve the period after the final evaluation, when it is important to leave time for further discussion of points on which supervisor and student do not agree, so that the final written report can represent a joint view.

Approximately one week before the evaluation conference, the supervisor should discuss the upcoming evaluation with the student, explain the standards and expectations for his level of education, deal with his anxiety, and discuss the outline that will be used. The evaluation outline used for the course, will serve to organize both his thinking and that of the supervisor during the week ahead, so that they will be prepared to discuss his progress in the pertinent areas when they meet for the evaluation conference. Some supervisors find it useful to present this to their students in a group. A few of the advantages of group vs. individual preparation of students, are delineated by Pettes.

"We see, (in a group), the strong students voicing the anxiety for the weaker students. On the other hand, the discussion must of necessity remain fairly general and while the impersonality may be a comfort to some students, others may welcome a more direct personal approach in supervisory sessions. One of the dangers, when preparing the student in an individual session, is that of becoming engaged in the evaluation at once. As the supervisor explains general standards, the temptation is to begin to compare the student's work to the standards by way of illustration or reassurance. It is a temptation to which the student particularly is likely to succomb; and the supervisor will need to hold firmly to the necessity for careful review and thought before they embark on such discussion."

Young discusses the appropriate scope of the evaluation as it differs for students in early placements and workers in professional placements. These distinctions seem valid also for the fledgling as compared with the more advanced students. She organizes areas of performance to be assessed into application of theoretical knowledge, skills, and attitudes. For the early placement, knowledge may be reflected in, for example, a grasp of the agency's role and procedures. Potential skill may be seen in the ability to make relationships, powers of observation, or the ability to express oneself on paper. Attitudes may be judged by the response to criticism, willingness to accept responsibil-

ity, and a capacity for disinterested understanding. With the more advanced student, evaluation can focus on theoretical knowledge and the ability to apply it, skill in practice, and acceptance of the role of professional worker.

An example of how student performance can be assessed in a sequential, progressive hierarchy of expectations can be seen in the following list developed by the School of Social Work at the University of Wisconsin. They concluded that it was, in fact, possible to state expectations for students in general as they moved thru the four semesters of a field course.

Levels of Expectation

(Areas in which student can be expected to concentrate)

1st Semester generalized, exploratory	a. Student's perception of others. b. Perception of self by others. c. Perception of self as "helping" person. d. Observation, awareness, and identification of social problems and persons affected by them. e. Concentration on communication and data-collection skills. f. Identification of social work roles.
2nd Semester specificity re: social problems	a. Development of conceptualizations: application of theory to observed problems. b. Concentration on interpretation of data (decision-making skills). c. Analysis and development of alternatives available to deal with observed problems (theoretical knowledge). d. Alternative behaviors to be utilized in implementing (c). (Methodological knowledge).
3rd Semester specificity re: "practitioner" behaviors	a. Concentration of assignments which provide student with opportunities for practice of decisionmaking and intervention skills. b. Articulation by student of professional behavior to be utilized in carrying out an assignment re: a specific problem. c. Development of practice models which

		student can describe and use for problem solving.

fessional practice.

d. Identification of social policy issues, administrative and social system implications of his experiences with people re: specific problems.

4th Semester	a.	Integration by student of first three semesters' experience.
independent functioning	b.	Capacity to carry out with consistent productivity a variety of assignments.
with consultation	c.	Defining limits and capacities for professional practice.

The application of a progression such as this can help the supervisor and the student develop highly specific expectations for a given semester's work, thereby making the evaluation procedure more meaningful.

Interim evaluation sessions may differ from the final one only in the writing of the final report, but student anxiety about final evaluations being what it is, this is a large "only." There are several formats that the evaluation discussion itself may follow, using the same elements of evaluation outline, written report, discussion, and rediscussion, in different juxtapositions. Young considers that "the discussion is best carried out in two stages; the main discussion taking place before the written evaluation is finally drafted, and a second shorter one, when the document has actually been written." Other arrangements allow time for several follow-up sessions, before or after the report is written, where there is a considerable difference of opinion, or difficulty in accepting supervisor comments. Pettes writes that some supervisors find it easier to write out a rough draft of their proposed evaluation and give it to the student to read as a basis for discussion. Some even ask the student to prepare a self-evaluation in writing and use both documents as a basis for discussion. She is critical of these procedures, however, writing, "If one of the purposes of the session is to involve the student in thoughtful discussion of his work with his supervisor, statements prepared in advance rarely serve this purpose." The discussion may become a defense of prepared positions or a bargaining session, or the student may feel (often accurately), that the supervisor's rough draft, with minor changes, will be his final evaluation, regardless of his disagreement. In addition, it is difficult for the student to expose inadequacies he is aware of, but thinks perhaps the supervisor is not, in the isolation of his room, without being able to judge the supervisor's reaction. A two-way discussion, perhaps using notes made

during the preceding week, of the items on the evaluation outline as they relate to what the supervisor and student have already discussed during supervision sessions, is generally agreed upon by those writing on the subject, as leading to a clear overview of the strengths and weaknesses of the student, what he has learned, and what remains for him to work on. And, as Williamson puts it, "There should be a genuine, not fulsome, accreditation of strengths; this will help to keep ground under the learner's feet while helping him to see the need to make changes."

The written report subsequently prepared by the supervisor, will be his evaluation of the student's performance, and must represent his thinking, but it must also give recognition to the student's thinking, contributions, and disagreements. (Pettes). If the supervisor has made it clear to the student that he is free to disagree, and their relationship has been an open one, the report will reflect this. It must serve the needs of the school in evaluating the student's ability to meet its standards, and serve the student's need to know what areas will require additional attention, and what strengths he has to build upon. Opinions differ on the value of having the student read the final document. Young finds that after a full and frank discussion with the supervisor, some students don't want to see the final report, and some are uncomfortable if they do not. Some request a copy, which Young feels should be done only on agreement with the school instructor, since the written evaluation "does, in a sense, belong to the educational body which has placed the student for his fieldwork training." Pettes suggests that the supervisor and student both sign the final report, signifying their agreement on what it contains.

Anxiety as a factor in evaluating field work students was touched on earlier, in connection with the preparation of students for the evaluation discussion, but it deserves elaboration because of the considerable role it plays in both student and supervisor attitudes toward the evaluating process. Student anxiety is normally high at any evaluation time, but the possibility of an unsatisfactory report in a field work placement carries specific meanings. Not only is self-esteem at stake, and school credit, but professional plans hang in the balance, along with the self-concept of being a helping person. In addition many students have unrealistically high expectations of themselves and are all too conscious of their shortcomings. On the positive side, "anxiety need not always be corrosive; with the understanding support of his supervisor, a student can be helped to use anxiety around evaluation as stimulus to greater effort or to the nondamaging acceptance of necessity for modification of individual plans." (Williamson).

Supervisor anxiety may center on the responsibility evaluation entails, sometimes fear of inadequacy in facing it, and sometimes actual

distaste for this part of the supervisory job. Williamson cites speculation in some agencies as to whether the same person ought to be teaching and evaluating, and the risk of this arrangement to the supervisory relationship. However, she feels that if evaluation is perceived as an ongoing process, part and parcel of teaching, it will not be experienced as inappropriate and an intrusion into the relationship, and need not be anxiety-producing for either member. "Evaluation should not be an episodic incursion into the supervisory process."

Pettes raises the issue of "judging" as being counter to the thrust of counseling, and hence anxiety-producing for some. She answers this by saying, ". . . but the supervisor is not asked to be judgmental. He is asked to judge, to assess, to use his judgment, on the basis of evidence . . . (as) in making a diagnosis on a case and deciding on treatment plans, only in this case it is an educational assessment. However, it is not only a reluctance to judge that causes the supervisor some anxiety. He is usually acutely aware of the inevitable anxiety that will be aroused in students at the suggestion of an evaluation."

Aside from anxiety, there are other supervisor attitudes that may get in the way of effective evaluation. Williams cites these in a discussion of supervisor-worker evaluations, but they have some relevance to supervisor-student relationships also. A supervisor may have difficulty in relinquishing direct satisfaction of working with clients in order to help others to achieve that competence. She may have difficulty in determining what standards to use for workers less experienced than herself and try to create all workers in her own image. Competitive factors in her personality may make it easier to see weaknesses than strengths. The learning worker is usually well aware of his weaknesses and needs help in using his strengths to grow. If she dislikes the worker, she may be reluctant to criticize, and if she likes the worker, she may overemphasize accomplishments and underplay weaknesses. "She should discipline herself to uncover any lurking feelings of irritation or disappointment over non-performance, or any tendency to overidentification with a worker." She needs first to develop the ability to deal with her own feelings about the evaluation, in order to help the student or worker to deal with his, and in order to determine the objectivity of the criticism. (Williamson).

An element that is likely to be overlooked in evaluating a student's effectiveness in his field work placement, is the role played by the agency and the supervisor. To what extent, and in what ways have the agency's procedures and arrangements, and the supervisor's activity or busyness with other responsibilities, contributed to a student's poor showing? Were the assignments made by the agency appropriate to the student's level at the time he entered the placement? Was he given adequate support? Were the orientation and preparation given

him by the agency sufficient and appropriate? What has the agency done to help with the difficulties? "Evaluation should not proceed apart from some consideration of these factors." (Williamson).

Evaluation, then, need not be a tag-end procedure, tacked on to the end of the supervised field work experience, but having no effect on it, and causing a degree of apprehension to supervisor and student alike. Given mutual understanding of its place in the relationship, and approached with adequate preparation on both sides, evaluation can be a positive and productive learning experience for both student and supervisor.

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